

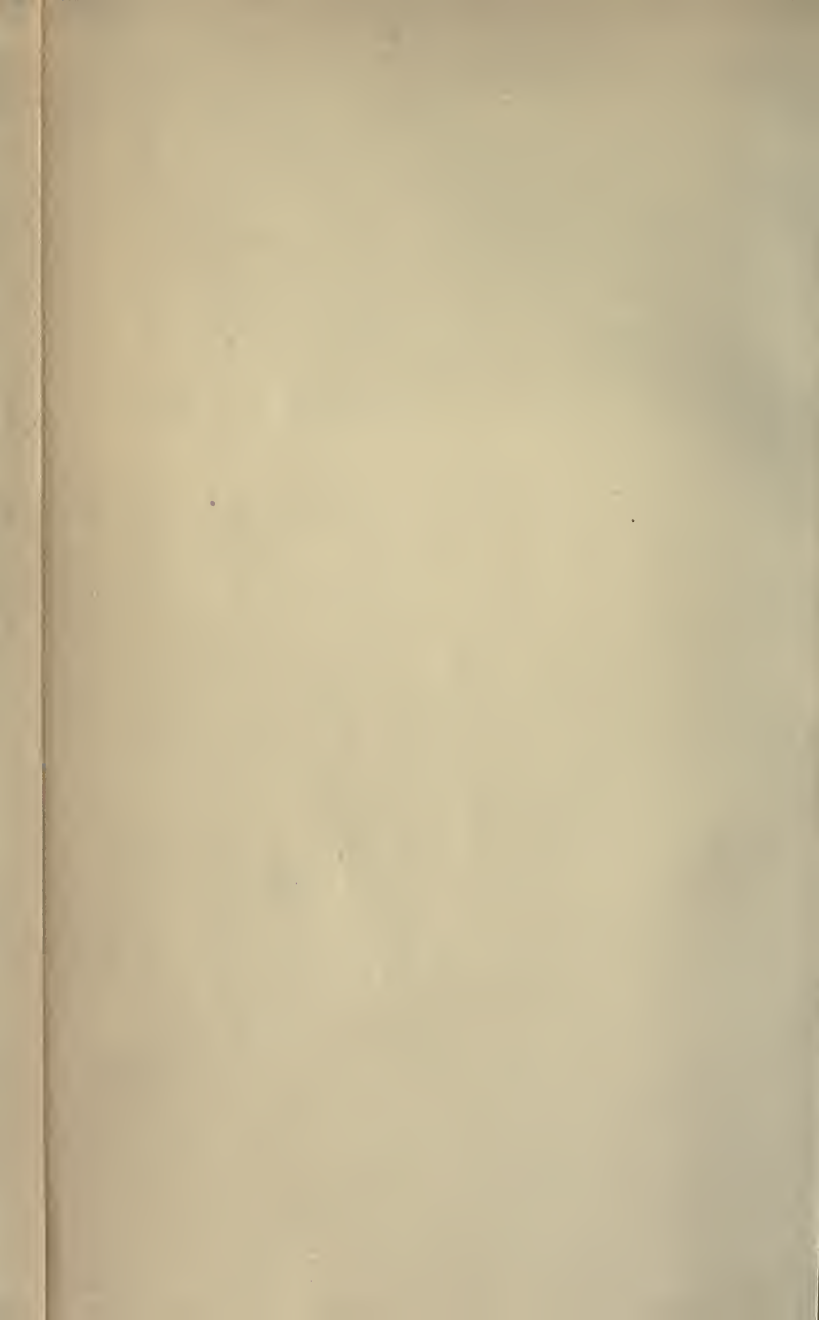
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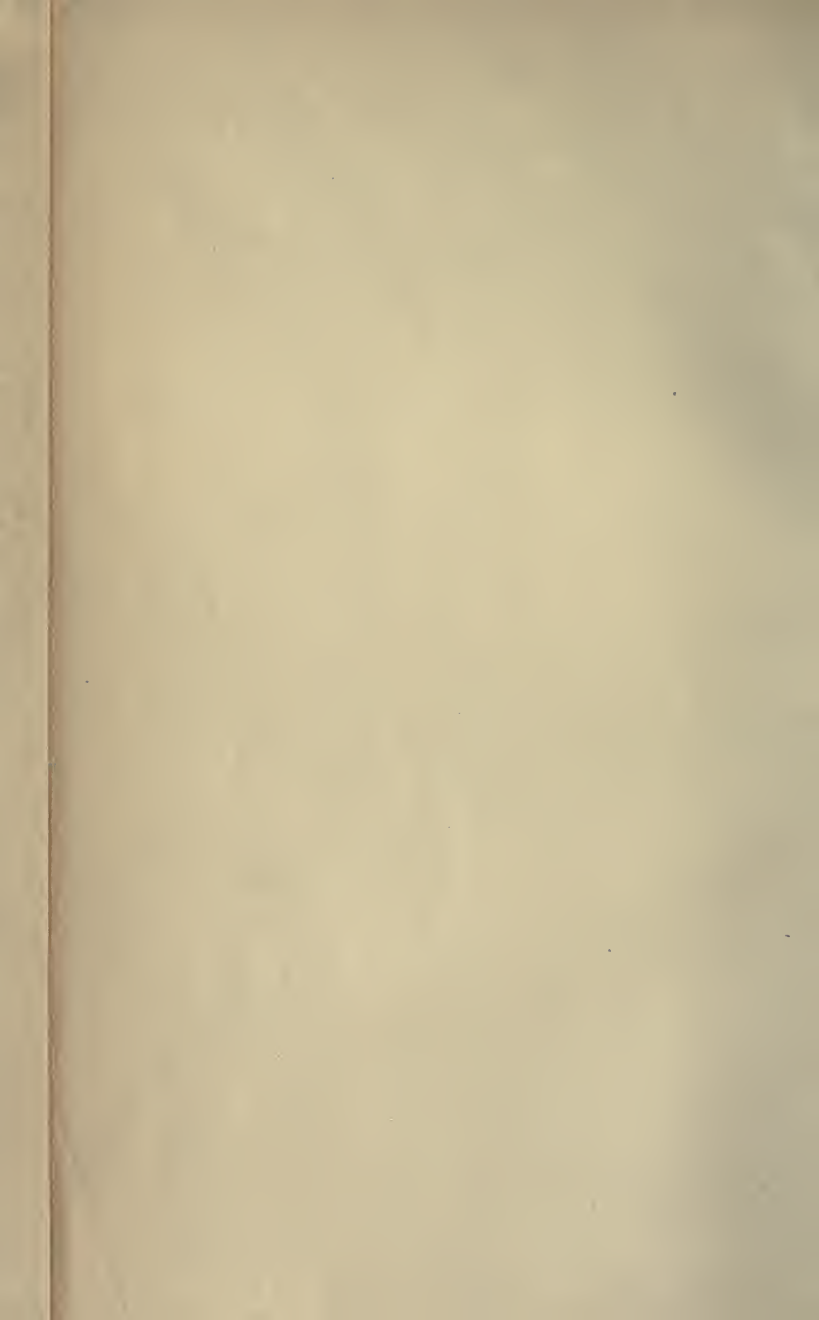
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SCHOOL INTERESTS AND DUTIES

DEVELOPED FROM PAGE'S "MUTUAL DUTIES OF
PARENTS AND TEACHERS," FROM VARIOUS
PUBLIC REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS, AND
FROM THE BULLETINS OF THE
NATIONAL BUREAU OF
EDUCATION

BY

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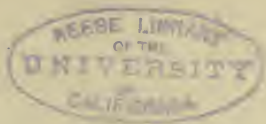
SCH. INT. & DUT.

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	5
I. DUTIES OF PARENTS	11
II. DUTIES OF TEACHERS	45
III. DUTIES OF SCHOOL OFFICERS	55
IV. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE	73
V. SCHOOL HYGIENE	105
VI. ARBOR DAY CELEBRATIONS	123
VII. THE DICTIONARY, AND HOW TO USE IT.	147
VIII. SCHOOL LIBRARIES	163
IX. SCHOOL MORALS	181
X. SCHOOL ETIQUETTE	191
XI. SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS AND OBSERVANCES	207
XII. THE TEACHER'S INSTITUTE	239
XIII. TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES	267
XIV. PUPILS' READING CIRCLES	289
XV. THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO PUBLIC OPINION	299
OUTLINES OF READING CIRCLE WORK	319



SCHOOL INTERESTS AND DUTIES



INTRODUCTION

IN education as in government, in literature, in science, and in every phase of human experience, we profit by looking backward as well as forward.

In every age there are men who stand forth in bold relief among their contemporaries, and leave their impress upon succeeding generations; there are occasions which, though perhaps little known at the time, become historic because of their influence upon the future; there are words of wisdom fitly spoken, which the people will not suffer to die, but to which they will often turn in succeeding years for suggestion, inspiration, and guidance. Such a man and such words are the inspiration of this volume.

In 1838, the ninth meeting of the American Institute of Instruction was held at Newburyport, Massachusetts. The Institute was the precursor of the National Educational Association. It was made up, for the most part, of men from the New England States. In these days of easy and quick travel, thousands of men and women of the rank and file of the army of teachers gather each year at the National meetings; at that time, only leaders undertook the journey to the place of conference. This meeting in Newburyport was attended by many men whose broad thinking and active efforts produced results of which we are gathering the

fruits to-day in better schools and better citizenship. Among them were Horace Mann and David Perkins Page.

Mr. Page was at this time in his twenty-eighth year, and was Principal of the English High School at Newburyport. He was already attracting attention by his ability as a teacher, and by his interest in his profession, and at this meeting he was honored with a prominent place on the programme of exercises.

His theme, which grew out of the experiences of his own teaching, was *The Mutual Duties of Parents and Teachers*. His address was a manly plea for coöperation. He placed matters in a new light. There is an old saying, "As is the teacher, so is the school." True as this is, there is another equally true: "As is the community, so is the school." The school is a safe index to the spirit and advancement of the people. It had been customary, and too often still is customary, to throw upon the teacher the entire responsibility for the shortcomings of the school. Mr. Page revealed to parents the fact that the teacher also has a side to present, and even insisted that parents might be called upon for explanations and apologies. He said that there was nowhere, at that time, the coöperation between citizens and teachers which is necessary to the life of the good school. The speaker called the attention of parents for the first time publicly to their duties toward the teachers, and enumerated what he conceived to be the mutual duties of each.

The address was heard with the greatest interest and enthusiasm. At its close, Horace Mann arose to commend it. He called it the greatest educational document ever read before the American Institute of Instruction. He went further, and declared it the greatest address on practical educational matters ever delivered before any body of educators. He measured it by its probable influence in bringing about the coöperation that was so much desired. He admired it for its insistent boldness. To-day it would not be remarka-

ble for that quality, but in 1838 it was a remarkable address.

Its influence has fulfilled Mr. Mann's prediction. It has been a powerful agent in the advancement of the schools to their present position; and so long as there is need of coöperation in school work, the address should continue to live and exert its influence.

Mr. Mann recognized the value of giving it widespread attention, and moved, at the close of his remarks, that 5000 copies (a large number for those days) be printed and distributed by the Institute. The motion prevailed; and in the same year Ticknor, of Boston, published it. Only a few copies of the original pamphlet are now in existence. The copy from which extracts have been made for this book belongs to the daughter of Mr. Page.

Since the time of the Newburyport meeting, a new factor has come into prominence in school affairs. In nearly all the States, the educational affairs are administered by school boards, trustees, directors, or committeemen, as they are variously named. In the early times, the school affairs were governed directly by the citizens, acting in town meeting or in some other way, or the management of the school was the minor duty of another officer; but it is now almost universally the custom to give its care to officers chosen mainly for that purpose. Instead of its being a matter of coöperation between two parties, there are now *three* who must work together harmoniously and enthusiastically for the good of citizenship. To secure this coöperation where it does not exist, it is only necessary to point out its need and to suggest duties which may not be clear at first sight.

If the parties to this mutual understanding have been increased in so important a measure, the subjects with which they have to deal have been vastly extended, as well. The common purpose, common understanding, and cordial coöperation must be applied in our day to many phases of educational development which were unknown or little

considered in the time of Page. To present these to the consideration of teachers, school officers, and parents is but to carry out to their logical conclusion the all-important suggestions of Page's remarkable address.

This book has been prepared with a view to bringing down to the present date the doctrine of coöperation in school interests, with all that it implies of enlightened, harmonious, and effective work in the interests of popular education. This being its plan and purpose, the writer has drawn freely from all sources which have presented themselves. The progress of the cause of popular education is nowhere more clearly shown than in the discussions of our leading teachers and in the various special reports and manuals issued from time to time by school officials and State departments of education. The extracts from the works of Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, Emerson, Holmes, Aldrich, Lucy Larcom, and Bryant are used by permission of and special arrangement with the publishers, Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., and D. Appleton & Co.

Acknowledgments are due to Chancellor Payne of the University of Nashville for permission to use extracts from his works in the chapter on Teachers' Institutes; and to Commissioner Harris of the National Bureau of Education for the privilege of using material from the bulletins of the Bureau, especially in the chapters on School Architecture and School Hygiene.

As the work has been compiled with a special view to the needs of Teachers' Reading Circles, it is divided into parts corresponding to the months of the Reading Circle year and provided with Outlines of Reading Circle work.

R. M. K.

INDIANAPOLIS, March, 1895.

1

DUTIES OF PARENTS



CHAPTER I

DUTIES OF PARENTS¹

Need of Sympathy between Teachers and Parents.—The profession of the teacher is certainly an important one. It should be a happy one. Adverse influences ought to be removed, and the teacher left free to devise his own plans and to find his enjoyment in witnessing the success attendant on their execution.

We would not ask for greater emolument—though, when we consider that the teacher's best years are spent in his duties, and after his best years are passed away an enlightened community usually judges him not only unfit for school-keeping but also unfit for anything else, we are constrained to believe that the matter of compensation has been little enough considered. We would not ask for greater respect and attention. We believe that the instructor has received his share of these in proportion to his merits. But we would ask for sympathy—for soul-cheering sympathy—on the part of parents of those whom we are called to instruct. We would plead for their aid as far as they can assist us. With that, we could go to the work with at least some gleamings of encouragement.

It is not our purpose to enter into a detailed enumeration of the difficulties of the teacher. It is sufficient for us to allege that a large part of them have their origin in the want of coöperation, or the misdirected influence of the parents.

¹ David P. Page (see Introd., p. 5).

Nor shall we labor on this occasion to arrange proofs of this position. It is a remark among teachers, as common as household words, that "teaching might be a delightful employment if one could take his pupils entirely out of the reach of their parents." The experience of those who have had charge of academies in the country, where the pupils chiefly were away from their own homes, goes to establish the same point; and any one who has attentively watched the course of events in one of those important communities which we call a school district cannot have failed to draw the conclusion to which we have come.

We would not advocate, however, the removal of the young from their parents for the purposes of education. We believe that the Creator has wisely established the family relation, and that it is our duty to draw out and render available its uses, rather than, by extinction of the relation, to destroy its abuses. We believe that the child can be best educated among those of his own kindred, provided parents and teachers can by any means be made to understand one another's relative duties and obligations.

Between parties who are so often brought into collision, it is highly desirable that there shall exist some well-defined, mutual understanding. In many of our public schools the usefulness of one teacher after another is effectually destroyed; the youth suffering not only from the interruption of their studies, but also from the angry looks and harsh words witnessed at home, and the parents, meantime, working themselves up into the exercise of bad feeling, where nothing is designed but good.

They are often parents who feel sufficiently the importance of education, whose impulses are sufficiently powerful, if only moved in the right direction, to carry them into the performance of every good word and work. They make, it may be, liberal provision for the support of their schools; but, after all, the atmosphere is unhealthy. One sun after another rises upon them, only to raise the vapor and the

mildew. Shorn of their beams, and robbed of their warmth, they go down in clouds and tempests, while the district over which they have passed is left in still greater darkness, and the chill and gloom of a winter's midnight yet hang over them. Why all this waste of strength, of money, and of talent? Why so often must the teacher on the one hand and the parent on the other row in opposite directions? Let us, for a few moments, inquire into the causes of the difficulty, and then we may hope better to adopt a prevention or devise a remedy. What, then, are some of the causes of misunderstanding between parents and teachers?

Causes of Misunderstanding.—1. Parents do not sufficiently feel the importance of schools. After all that has been said in our halls of legislation, in our political assemblies, in our public journals, and in our pulpits, upon the importance to a free and independent people of a good education, there are many, very many, who have no adequate notion of its value. This lack of appreciation will show itself in many ways to make the duties of the teacher more arduous. One man keeps his son from the school on the slightest occasion; another, in the same spirit, refuses to furnish the various facilities which the teacher may deem necessary for the prosecution of study. Now, while such is the state of feeling in the parent's mind, the business of instructing his child, who will most assuredly partake of his father's spirit, will be more arduous than the making of bricks and furnishing straw under the taskmasters of the Egyptian monarch.

2. A false standard of excellence and attainment for our schools sometimes exists in the minds of parents. The standard of their own attainments and of the schools of their boyhood is put by many parents for the youth and schools of the present day. They seem not to reflect that a child, in order to maintain his comparative standing in society now, must know more than if he had lived fifty years ago. The progress in education—without claiming

much for the "march of intellect"—having kept pace in some ratio with other things, the whole body of the people are more advanced. Having in view a standard so low, the parent grudgingly furnishes the books and apparatus which may be needed to carry his son beyond his own level. He sees no beauty or fitness in the plans and measures of the teacher, so unlike those of the instructor of his own early years. He has serious objection to all classification in the school, because, as he says, *he* studied "single handed"; and he is unwilling that his child should be compelled by any such "machinery" to go beyond the limits prescribed in his own mind.

3. There is often a suspicious spirit on the part of parents. So universally does this operate on the minds of some—induced, perhaps, by some failure or deception in a former teacher—that for weeks, in many districts, they seem to stand on the opposite side to watch for the appearance of some fault. It would seem to be their motto: "We will believe no good till we see it." The children, always ready imitators and quick of discernment, catch the same spirit, and watch for some imperfection, which they feel encouraged to report at home as soon as they see it or think they see it. Faults, and not excellences, make the first impression, both at school and at home; and the teacher, under such circumstances, must be a wonderful man and wonderfully fortunate if he can ever attain to a good degree of their confidence. If he does gain their confidence, it must be after long trial, patient effort, tried as by fire.

4. There is sometimes a disposition to dictate. In New England, men have often some adroitness in various kinds of business. The farmer, for instance, if he be a true Yankee, may at the same time be a carpenter, a wheelwright, a shoemaker, and a blacksmith—for all his own purposes. If he does not operate in all these departments, he feels perfectly at liberty to direct how the work shall be performed for him. So most parents feel disposed to give les-

sons to the schoolmaster. If they call a physician, he may administer to his patient either calomel or lobelia, as he chooses. But the teacher must first hear their direction in his profession. And the most unfortunate part of it is, that the dictation usually comes to the teacher through the pupil, who, by the time he delivers his message, has pretty thoroughly imbibed the spirit of it. What part of it might be yielded by the parent is sure to be insisted on as a matter of right by the child.

5. There is a want of personal acquaintance between the parties. Teachers in many of our schools spend months, and in some instances years, with youths whose parents they have never known. The parents, during this time, have probably formed their opinions of the teacher, perhaps have expressed them freely either for or against him, and yet have never spoken a word with him, and very likely may not even know him by sight. They can understand but little of his character, of his temper, of his interest in his school. All they can know of him is derived through their children—a knowledge which, to say the most for it, may be right or may be wrong.

Let us not be understood to place all the causes of these evils at the door of the parents. We say it with sorrow—teachers have too often rendered themselves unworthy of the confidence and coöperation of parents. It must be admitted that the office of the teacher has been filled not unfrequently with the personifications of indolence, selfishness, and imbecility. Men have sometimes entered upon the business of teaching from no higher motive than their incapacity to gain a livelihood in any other way. Through the supineness of school committees and the misdirected sympathy of some of their influential friends, there have been not a few men who have gained their situations by the paper qualifications which they carried in their pocket-books, and who, so far as usefulness in their schools was concerned, might as well have been themselves paper men.

The regular (professional) teacher, too, may have his faults. He may have but little in his character which is attractive or conciliatory. He may be too self-sufficient, pedantic, or haughty. He may announce his plans without any apparent wish to explain them, should he be reasonably requested to do so. He may be an "off-side" man. If the people among whom he resides put the wheel in motion and excite the electric fluid, he may refuse to hold the conductor, and so no spark will be kindled. Should they bow in the street, he may set his face like flint and "let his course be right onward," and thus chill all their good feelings in the bud and seal up by a relentless frost all the fountains of mutual sociality.

Where the foregoing causes exist, they must always produce a most unhappy state of things; and the teacher, who attempts to go forward while they operate will most certainly rue the day when he first set out to teach.

How to Avoid these Evils. — It is desirable that all should understand the means of avoiding these evils if they do not exist, or of removing them where they have gained a place. In education, as in all other things, prevention is better than cure. The teacher will therefore spare himself many pangs and secure the foundation of much usefulness if he can so conduct matters as to prevent the existence of any cause of difficulty between himself and the parents of his pupils. This business of prevention lies partly with the teacher and partly with the parents themselves.

He should study faithfully and feelingly the relations he sustains to his pupils and to their friends; he should carefully perform every known duty in its time and after its manner, according to the dictates of his own conscience. Let him do this, and he can be happy in his own mind. Yet when he has done all he can do, the question of his success will depend very much upon the parents of his pupils. They must come forward and crown the work, or very much will be wanting after all.

Let us, then, devote a few pages to the consideration of the duties of parents. On entering this part of the subject, we feel an impulse to speak plainly and feelingly. It will be difficult to define all the duties of parents. It will be our object to speak of those which most strongly suggest themselves.

Duties of Parents. — 1. Parents should reciprocate the attempts of the teacher toward a mutual understanding. It will discourage the most faithful instructor if, at the outset, he meets with coldness and unconcern. The parents should never forget that the teacher is their appointed coadjutor, for the time being, to educate their children. As they love their children and desire their advantage, so should they be ready to encourage all the advances which he may make towards the better understanding of their wishes and intentions, and the explanation of his plans.

2. Parents should listen candidly to the plans of the teacher and, unless they are manifestly wrong, should do all in their power to aid him in the execution of them. We say, unless they are *manifestly wrong*. Many parents suppose that if a teacher's modes and plans are not the best — in their opinion the *very best* — they are under no obligation to help them forward. But we say that every teacher may not have the wisdom to devise abstractly the best plans, yet most likely such as he will devise will be the best *for him*. He has taken much time and, after long solicitude and many desires to be useful, he has fixed upon a course — one which, under all the circumstances, may seem to him the best.

Now, suppose this course shall chance to strike the parents' minds unfavorably; shall they at once abandon the teacher, give up all hopes of benefit from the school, and withdraw their coöperation? Is it not rather their duty either to suggest "a more excellent way" — which they may ever do if they have a right spirit — or to give their coöperation in carrying out his plans, such as they are? The teacher, be it remembered, is appointed to conduct the school for a

time; and unless his services and his plans, however inferior they may be, are rendered useful, the youths are, for the time, losers.

Parents may be as particular as they please in the choice of their teacher, and in requiring the highest rate of qualifications; but after they have accepted him as teacher they cannot, without a breach of contract, withhold from him their coöperation. If they have been imposed upon—if the incumbent is found to be absolutely incompetent—they may decently secure his dismissal and the appointment of another; but to continue in office a teacher in whom they have no confidence and whom they refuse to aid is a breach of good faith. It is an illustration of the maxim that “two wrongs can never make a right.”

As a general rule (we repeat it), the teacher's own plans will be found decidedly the best *for him*, and it is not good policy for parents upon slight cause to attempt an obtrusive interference. The right of adopting his own measures, as a general thing, should be conceded to the teacher, and all parents will find their own interests promoted and their children's advancement accelerated in cheerfully aiding him.

3. Parents should thankfully listen to the teacher's faithful account of their children, even if that account be not a flattering one. We have before said that the teacher should be frank, always telling the parents the whole truth and nothing but the truth. This must sometimes be of itself an unpleasant duty. It is self-denying enough for the teacher to make an unfavorable statement demanded by his duty under the best circumstances, and the trial is peculiarly severe when the parent receives it with expressions of displeasure or of undisguised reproach. Nothing should deter the teacher, however, from the faithful discharge of this duty; and he has a just right to expect cordiality and gratitude on the part of the parent for his faithfulness, whether his report be bright or dark. The good and wise parent will always exhibit them.

4. Parents should visit the schools which their children attend. Without this they can have no very correct idea of the state of things in the schoolroom. Common report concerning the affairs of a school is not always correct. By visiting the school, parents can at once see, if the teacher is honest, the comparative standing of their children. They will become more interested in the objects and business of the school, and — what will be of infinite worth both to teacher and pupils — it will convince them all that the parents have some sense of the importance of the improvement made there. The pupils will be quickened to diligence and the teacher to activity and faithfulness. And is not the rate of purchase very low when the advantage is so great?

5. Parents should promptly and cheerfully supply the required books and apparatus for the school. The teacher cannot work without tools; the parent ought not to expect it. If a parent has any doubt about the propriety of a call for a new book, he should at once see the teacher. Never should he send an uncivil or angry message by the child. An interview of five minutes may put the matter peaceably at rest, and save both parties much unpleasant feeling.

Besides, schoolbooks are now less expensive than formerly. The parent in most cases can better afford to buy a book than to spend his time in talking about it. Often the pupil loses more by a delay of one week than the value of the book many times told, for there is no estimating improvement by dollars and cents. We grant that an over-supply and too frequent changes of schoolbooks are a great and sore evil; but this, at least, is not the fault of the instructor. No good can possibly come of disputing a question with him which has been settled already by the school authorities.

6. Parents should see that their children are decently clothed and cleanly in their persons. This duty belongs mainly to the mother, and her character may be very readily seen as reflected in the persons of her children. The

teacher has a right to expect of the parents the faithful performance of this duty. He ought not to be insulted with filthiness; and surely he need not be, so long as soft water falls in rich abundance from the heavens, and a pair of scissors and a comb are possessed by every family. He can have no heart to come in contact with pupils who are sometimes so sadly neglected in this particular. This point, however, is so obvious that we need not waste words upon it.

7. Parents are bound to secure the constant attendance of their children. This is no trifling article of their duty. Perhaps there is no one thing to be named which contributes so largely to the perplexities of the teacher and to the injury of our public schools as irregular attendance. Real illness of the child is a good excuse for absence from school; and perhaps we may add, in some instances, illness in the family. But beyond these, it seems to us, there can be no good reason for keeping a scholar from his school. It is discouraging to see for what trifling causes many of the children are kept away.

Frequently it happens that some errand as trifling—if we may be allowed to be specific—as the purchase of a cent's worth of yeast is made the occasion of a half day's absence from school, occasioning thereby an injury to the child's mind which cannot be estimated in dollars and cents. Who can compute the amount of idle habits of study having their foundation in that indifference to education which, for some trifling errand, permits the child to be away from his class and thus practically teaches him to consider his school a very cheap affair?

Every school, if the teacher would lay out his strength to advantage, should be classified. The teacher's mind must act, as far as practicable, upon masses of mind. But irregularity of attendance is most ruinous to classification. A pupil absent one half the time is, to all intents and purposes of the school, absent all the time. One day he is absent,

and, of course, loses all that day's lessons; the next day he is present, but is still deficient in his lessons, because, as he says to his teacher, "I was absent yesterday and, not knowing where to study, I have not studied at all!" Again he is absent—again he is present. The same result follows, and at the week's end he has learned nothing as it should be learned. Such is the effect upon the pupil himself.

But the difficulty is not now half told. He is a member of the school—the teacher must consider him such; and as the parents of such pupils often make fair promises for the future, the teacher feels bound to keep him, if possible, along with his class. To effect this, the class must be often put back on his account, which operates as a severe discouragement to them.

Sometimes the instructor is obliged to devote particular attention to this pupil singly, by which the other pupils are robbed of the proportion of his time which is their due. They are, moreover, obliged to suffer an injury the most unpleasant of all. For when pupils who are always at their posts have learned their lessons well, it is cruel in the last degree that they should be deprived of the pleasure of showing their faithfulness—the pleasure of a good recitation.

Nor is this all. The teacher, the unthought-of teacher, is not made of iron or brass. His patience being so frequently, so thoughtlessly, and so unnecessarily taxed and his best efforts being so ill-requited, he must, unless he is superhuman, relax his exertions. He will find it next to impossible for a series of weeks or months, after having labored faithfully without success, to maintain his interest and his efficiency under all the discouraging circumstances of the case. As soon as his spirits flag, the whole school will imperceptibly catch the feeling, and they are all sufferers. This is not an extreme case. It is not a fancy picture. It is not speculation. It is history! And I am sorry to be obliged to add, it is the exact history of most of our public schools!

Can any wonder, then, that we earnestly urge that parents should coöperate with the teacher in this particular? And shall it ever be that for some trifling errand which, by early rising, may be as well done long before school hours, or for some pretext originating in the imbecility or lack of forethought of our children's natural guardians—must it ever be that the teacher's life shall be a life of perplexity, and the design of our public school system shall be so far frustrated?

What has been said of irregular attendance will apply with equal force to want of punctuality to the hour of opening the school. The reasons for tardiness are often more futile, if possible, than those for entire absence. The effects upon the school are nearly the same; for the current proverb, "better late than never," will hardly hold in this case. But the effects of tardiness are more disastrous upon the child. He is allowed to be his own teacher of a most deleterious lesson. Let it never be forgotten that it is just as easy to be strictly punctual as otherwise, and the parent who will not lay the foundation of a habit so valuable in a child, when it can be done without cost, deserves not the privilege of being a parent. He betrays his trust! He injures his own child!

8. Parents should be slow to condemn the teacher for supposed faults. This is a point upon which many are apt to act wrongly. Too often is it the case that a teacher is tried and publicly condemned without even a hearing. Some troublesome, precocious youth, who has received, it may be very justly, some proportionate reward for his deeds, determines upon revenge. He immediately tells his story to any who will hear it. If his parents are inconsiderate and encourage him to go on, he is tempted to overreach the truth on the one hand, and to stop short of it on the other, till he succeeds in having the combustible material around him lighted into a flame. Such a fire is seldom kindled without most severely scathing somebody, and it sometimes

happens that those most burned are they who apply the match and fan the flames.

The truth is, few parents are capable of judging at the first blush upon the merits of a case which they have not witnessed. They have strong partialities in favor of the complainant. Then, too, they have but very inadequate views of the difficulties—the untold and untellable difficulties—with which the teacher must daily contend.

We undertake to say that parents often expect more of a teacher than he can possibly accomplish. They expect him to advance their children in learning, without making proper allowance for the difference of abilities which his pupils possess. Every parent wishes his son to be foremost in improvement, and he expects it, because he wishes it. At the same time, he expects the school to be a perfect pattern of good order, because in his family, where perhaps he has but one child, he has never known an insurmountable difficulty. He forgets that probably fifty other parents are expecting for their children as much as he for his, and that the teacher is laboring with a laudable ambition to do faithfully all that can be expected of him with some three or four score of individuals whose tempers and capacities and habits are as different as their countenances.

In judging of the teacher's government, the parent commonly compares it with his own family discipline, because the family is the only community with which he is acquainted that is at all analogous to the school. He forgets, perhaps, his own recent fits of impatience even among his little circle of some half a dozen, and he wonders at the unrestrained and unrestrainable temper of the schoolmaster who, it is said, was not quite self-possessed in his school of a hundred.

But the analogy does not hold between the family and the school. The parent has authority in the premises from which, to all intents, there is no appeal; and the children know it. He has several rooms at his command for solitary confinement or for private reproof and reasoning. More-

over, he has the advantage of knowing perfectly the disposition of each subject of his authority, and may always proceed advisedly in the adaptation of his discipline. He has ample leisure for the purpose; for if his business be pressing during the day, he can postpone the whole matter till the calm and silent hour of evening, when, unexcited and undisturbed, he may pursue his steady purpose. With all these advantages it would be strange if a parent could not govern his own household well and without much resort to the rod. The parent may well wonder at himself if he has not good discipline.

But the case is not thus with the teacher. His authority in these latter days is somewhat questionable. He usually has but one room for his use, and that one often too small even for the pursuit of the more quiet duties of the school. He has no prison, and if he had, he has no authority to confine beyond his usual school hours. He has no allowances or provisions to dispense or withhold. He cannot, unless his discernment is supernatural, have a perfect knowledge of the disposition of each pupil.

Hence he is, from the nature of the case, liable to misjudgment in the adaptation of his means. He has no leisure. He must work all the time, for his reputation depends on his success in teaching. He is expected to advance each pupil daily. He has not the time to adjust all his measures by deliberate reflection. He cannot always put off the case. His little community probably may need the immediate check which the punishment will give. If he should neglect to work the pump, the ship would probably sink and bury him and his in the waves of insufferable confusion. Consider well the life of the teacher. He must apply himself constantly, and often to numberless things at the same time. We are told, I know, that the teacher should do but one thing at a time. But this is impossible. Two things he must always do at once—he must govern and instruct. He can never do the latter without having upon his mind the former.

It is this double attention that makes his life a weary one. He might govern with comparative ease if his duty ended there. The instruction would be delightful if that could be pursued alone. But they must go together. With respect to the one, not a mistake must pass unnoticed. Every error in declension or conjugation, in orthography or calculation, in matter or manner, must be detected and set right; and, at the same time, the stolen whisper must be heard, the clandestine plaything must be captured, the incipient plot must be discovered, the arch trick must be anticipated, the idler must be watched, the wayward reprov'd and set right, and the stubborn and the impudent, the coarse and the turbulent, must be subdued. All these things must go together; they cannot be separated.

Then, in ordinary schools, unforeseen perplexities will arise. One boy has lost his book; another has left his at home; another makes clamorous complaints of some injury done him by his neighbor; a fourth is too warm, and opens the window; a fifth is too cold, and immediately shuts it or applies to the teacher for liberty to do so. Add to these the perplexities occasioned by late attendance and frequent absence, to which we have before referred, and many other things not mentioned, and who can wonder that the teacher should sometimes be a little in doubt as to the best mode of procedure in his discipline?

We do not name these things to complain of our lot as teachers. That is the profession of our choice; but we name them to show why the parent should be slow in condemning the teacher for supposed faults.

9. We add but one thing more. Parents should give to teachers their sympathy. Some parents, ready to meet the requisite expenses of their children's tuition, ready to coöperate with the teacher in all laudable plans and aims for the welfare of his pupils, are still lamentably deficient in this one Christian grace and virtue. They seem to have no conception that he has wants, like other men; that time, with

its free use and unfettered enjoyment, is also to him a blessed commodity; that confinement within the four walls of a schoolroom, month after month, does not necessarily leave him no tastes to gratify beyond. They do not seem to realize that the teacher has nerves that need relaxation, languid pulses to be revived, and wasting strength to be renewed.

We claim the sympathy—the spontaneous, grateful sympathy of the parents; sympathy for the perplexities, the toils, the nameless trials that overtask the mind, unnerve the frame, and wear down the strength of the studious, faithful teacher.

Underestimation of the Teacher's Services.—It must be admitted that many persons estimate the services of the schoolmaster in very much the same way in which they estimate the services of the day-laborer in their employ. The man of business pays the clerk in the countingroom and the cartman on the wharf, and meets the term bill of his child's teacher, and in each case feels in his own mind alike absolved from further obligation.

Obligation! Obligation from a parent toward a teacher! We have heard the word sneered at, the idea treated with contempt. But as there is no estimating the amount of good or evil influence upon the ductile mind of a child—extending as it does through his boyhood, felt in his riper years, operating unseen upon the principles and habits of all after life, running into eternity—so there can be no estimating in mere dollars and cents the unspeakable value of a good teacher's services. No pecuniary emolument can ever cancel the obligation, unfelt and unacknowledged though it may be, under which the parent comes to the teacher.

The parent witnesses the expansion of the bud, the beautifying of the flower; but the genial influences which operate on these as the gentle dew and the blessed sunshine of heaven are wholly forgotten and overlooked. A hand is at work behind the scenes, and only the light of eternity can

reveal to the astonished parent that the sun, the shade, the imperceptible dew on the mind of his child were to be found in the unobtrusive workings — the judicious, persevering, faithful training — of the neglected teacher.

There is something cheering and animating in the cordiality of soul which it is in the parents' power to exercise toward the instructor. If they have not time for the visitation of the school or qualifications for the examination of their children in their studies, they certainly have it in their power to do much to make the teacher's life a pleasanter one. They can give to him some tokens of a kindly interest in his success, and of a willingness to cheer him along his toilsome way. Permit the teacher to see that his labors are appreciated, his duties and difficulties properly estimated, his plans cordially acquiesced in and promoted, his acts candidly judged, his faults fairly considered and heartily overlooked, and he would be ungrateful indeed should he not be willing to devote his strength to the last remnant of energy, to requite the confidence and answer the just expectations of those for whom he labors.

COMMENT ON PAGE'S SPEECH.

These are strong words, and, considering the fact that they were written by Mr. Page over fifty years ago, and that never before had the attention of parents been called publicly to their shortcomings, or an attempt made to awaken in them a sense of their responsibilities, they are bold ones.

Their effect has been widespread. Parents have been quick to respond, and better schools, with higher general culture, have been the results of the part taken by parents in the development of educational systems. In place of the school with —

“The warping floor, the battered seats,
The jackknife's carved initial,”

and

“The charcoal frescoes on the wall,”

we have the beautiful modern building, with its fine equipment, its handsomely furnished recitation rooms, its piano, its pictures, and its carefully kept grounds. These have come because the people have recognized how much they owe to the school, and how much influence these externals have on character.

Nor is it only in the matter of externals that the influence of the people is felt. The man may still be found who protests against his boy's being taught anything but reading, writing, and arithmetic; but he is hard to find. The school curriculum, though far from perfect, is now left by the people in charge of the educational expert. Things are coming into the course of study that will give a "nudge" towards "more life," and those things which do not are being dropped.

More than this, the people are demanding that the men and women who assume the great responsibility of leading the little ones into "more life" shall be fitted for the great trust by thorough training under experts at our universities and normal schools.

Much of this steady advance is the natural advance of civilization, of course, but we owe much to Mr. Page and his colaborers for seeing to it that the school kept up with the rest of our institutions in this steady march. The change in the attitude of the people towards the school renders appropriate the mention of some things not mentioned in Mr. Page's address, and I shall put down some statements here which teachers have often talked over, and which may have some good effect, I hope, in causing parents to view them as teachers do.

Inadequate Compensation of Teachers.—First, then, parents should lend their influence in favor of adequate compensation. The pay of teachers always has been inadequate. The majority of teachers work a part of the year at a wage which, measured by the needs of the entire year, is pitifully meager.

Every year hundreds of young men are forced out of the ranks of teachers in simple self-defense. Most of them take up teaching because they feel that it is the work to which they wish to bring the fire of their new zeal. Their enthusiasm is dampened when they discover that their earnings will not permit their taking the necessary steps to make desired advancement in their chosen profession.

It is true that there has been an advance in the matter of compensation within recent years; but it has not extended to the great body of the rank and file, and in few cases has it reached anything like the amounts secured by less labor and the exercise of less skill in other professions.

The agitation of the matter of compensation has had one result in a proposition for pensioning superannuated teachers. It has met with strong opposition from the teachers. All the educational journals and many prominent educators have protested warmly against pensions, and have declared that it will be better to give the teacher more pay. This will enable him to lay by something for the "rainy day." It will be infinitely better to pay him as much as his service demands than to pay him inadequately and then attempt to comfort his declining years with a meager pittance. It is believed that a pension system would cause a general depression in "tone," and would operate disastrously against the growth of professional spirit.

It is constantly said that the reason teachers are poorly paid lies in themselves. Teachers must make themselves worthy of greater compensation, and then they will obtain it. This is good logic, and it has been listened to, as our universities and normal schools bear witness. Their halls are crowded with young people who are fitting themselves for the great work of teaching by securing a higher education, by the study of pedagogic principles, by an inquiry into the laws of the mind's operations, by acquainting themselves with the history of education. They recognize the fact

that, if they would raise their work to the dignity of a "calling," they must know more than the mere facts of the studies of the curriculum.

Good primary teachers in the graded school, for instance, know that all the studies of the high school and the university are bound up in their work. They should be well and thoroughly educated, in order that they may clearly see "the end from the beginning." They must know far more. They must know the nature of the operations of the delicate and tender minds which form their material for work, and carefully avoid giving wrong habits of thought and fatal and erroneous impressions. What a responsibility rests upon the primary teachers!

What has been said of the training of primary teachers applies in a greater or less degree to teachers of every grade—to the specialists in the high school, and to the professors of the university. Teachers of all grades have felt the need of this training, and the standard of efficiency grows higher every year.

But now that the demand of teachers for better pay has been met with compliance, there seems to be no desire on the part of the public to advance salaries to the amounts deserved. There is an impression abroad that a salary of from \$600.00 to \$1200.00 is a comfortable income and an adequate compensation when given to the representative and professional teacher. It is forgotten that the lawyer or physician or other professional man who has spent as many years in preparation and in work is usually paid twice as much or more.

And it can be said to-day that one may become a successful lawyer or physician, viewed from the financial standpoint, with much less of special preparation than is required of the young man or young woman who desires to enter the teacher's profession.

It is stated that back of the fee of the specialist is his "knowing how." Is not the work of the teacher that of the

expert, too? Should he not be paid for the years of special training which have fitted him to be a workman on that most delicate of materials, the human soul?

But the public still refuse to regard this work as that of a specialist. His salary is still fixed at figures based upon the idea that the teacher's work is the work of the common artisan. He is practically paid by the hour, and the number of hours considered are only those actually occupied in hearing recitations and attending to the various duties of the schoolroom.

Further, we do not believe that many parents realize the strain occasioned by teaching, the tax upon the nervous system which the daily worries of the schoolroom bring. The constant endeavor to give true and not false estimates of things, the effort to break habits of conduct and thought which would affect the future happiness of the children, and to impart new ones which will be the source of the joy and the peace of life correctly lived,—all these things enter into the daily working life of the true teacher. The necessities of the teacher are those of the man in professional life; while, as has been said, he is paid, for the most part, as a common laborer.

The mechanic's simple wants are usually adequately furnished by the wage he earns. His dress should be plain. He enjoys simple and inexpensive luxuries. But the teacher, if he wishes to use all the means which make for higher influences on children's lives, must dress so that his attire will not attract attention by its cheapness or coarseness. By this it is not meant that he must dress expensively, but he must attire himself with the simple elegance which will not call the attention to the clothing, but will conform to the professional position which he holds.

Mention has been already made of the necessity of thorough professional training. Scores of teachers yearly spend all of the meager savings of their winter's hard work in maintaining themselves in the summer at some university

or normal school. This drain is hardly taken into consideration when salaries are arranged.

Further, every live teacher feels the need of the contact with his fellow-workers, for which opportunity is given by the various educational associations of his town, his county, his State, and by the national meetings. It is of the greatest importance that he receive the impetus of these meetings with others engaged in the same high work; that he hear the results of others' experience and research; that he secure the uplift into clearer atmospheres of thought from the great leaders of the profession who are present. This is another fact that should be held in mind by the community when the matter of pay is under discussion.

Another drain upon the resources of the teacher, little taken into account, is that occasioned by his library. The teacher must possess the best and freshest books. These must be books on professional subjects—books which pursue into their higher developments the lines of work he is engaged in teaching—and books of general literary culture.

The teacher must know his subject. More than this, he must know how to present it. He must understand as well as possible the operations of the human mind. He must be acquainted with method, and profit by other teachers' devices. He must know the experiences of others in matters of school management, in order that he may begin his work, not at the same level at which the masters of former generations began, but as nearly as possible where they left off. He must know the results of the latest child-study. His success as a teacher will depend upon how well he understands child-mind—and child-body, too! Many helpful words for his work he will find in the weekly or monthly educational journal for which he subscribes. There he finds the fresh results of the schoolroom's experiences, not yet crystallized into books, and educational intelligence of much value.

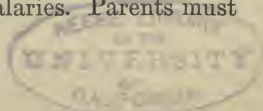
Equally important with the professional side of his read-

ing are his books of general culture. It is one of the greatest missions of the teacher to lead the child into the habit of reading. He must realize that, in the company of the greatest of earth, the child will but learn how to find himself. The teacher who does not attempt to impart the magic "Open, Sesame!" which will unlock the doors of the King's Treasuries is unworthy the name. The only way to do this noble thing is to have the nobility of these true kings of men in one's own heart. As far as possible, the teacher must be Shakspeare and Milton, Ruskin and Tennyson, Emerson and Carlyle, Longfellow and Hawthorne. Can he dare to be without the culture of this great acquaintance-ship?

To stimulate among teachers better and deeper habits of reading, and to give to the individual the enthusiasm which comes when a mass pursues a common end, Teachers' Reading Circles have been formed in many States. It is a movement which has been productive of inestimable benefit. The aim of the promoters has been to increase the professional spirit and enthusiasm, and also, where necessary, a sense of need of the culture which comes from the love of books. So there is usually made a selection of two books for each year's work, one relating to pedagogics, psychology, or school management, and the other either a masterpiece or a collection of the writings of various authors upon a single topic, or of a similar character.

The number engaged in this work is increasing every year. Those whose pay is so inadequate that they can do no more, aside from the expense of their special training, than to subscribe for an educational journal, are enabled to secure at low rate a good working library.

The public demands trained teachers; it demands (unconsciously, perhaps) that they read the books of the profession and the books of general literature. It should keep in mind the needs of the teachers' libraries when it fixes, through its public servants, the amounts of their salaries. Parents must



remember that if the children are to have the training which is to bring the greatest happiness, the teacher must be paid a sufficient amount to enable him to meet the expenditures necessary to put him in line with the best of his profession, and to bring him at least some of the comforts of life enjoyed by men in other professions who have given equal time and thought to their work.

The town meeting in some States affords the patrons of the school a direct voice in this matter. Their votes may wield a powerful influence, if they realize the truth of what has been said, to bring about a better condition of affairs.

But where the matter is in the hands of school boards or committees or trustees, as they may be variously called, they may still do a great good by creating a sentiment in the teachers' behalf, which will influence the board to act wisely; or they can express strong disapproval of measures which will reduce his income. The board represents the sentiment of the community; and if the community is interested in the schools, competent teachers will be employed at adequate salaries.

Need of Proper Environment.—Parents should exert their influence in favor of pleasant surroundings for the school. *Environment* is a sorely abused word. But it expresses best the things which make for character by their silent influence. Most of the impressions which mold lives come from the little-thought-of, silent things which we meet from day to day.

Children reared in beautiful homes—beautiful because of their tidiness and cleanliness and the exercise of taste, rather than mere costliness—can little measure the influence of the lovely spirit of home in their lives, their desires and thoughts. From the beautiful atmosphere of home come the noblest and tenderest traits of noble and tender men, the sweetest and loveliest characteristics of sweet and lovely women. But the home rooftree shares with the school the immense responsibility of the early impressions. The child

spends many hours of the most impressionable period of his life in the schoolroom and on its grounds. His waking moments are about equally divided between the home and the school.

Are not, then, the surroundings of the school almost as important as those of the home itself? Is it not possible that the effect of the beautiful home spirit may be effectually destroyed by an ill-kept, squalid school? Do not pupils who are obliged to spend hours each day in a room, the walls of which are blackened and defaced, or decorated with festoons of dusty cobwebs and with equally dusty charts or dirty blackboards, the desks scratched and defaced by the "jackknife's carved initial," the floor dusty and littered, this affording opportunity for the dissemination of disease germs — do not pupils who are subjected to these conditions take on the frowsy character of the place? One finds them lounging in listless attitudes in their seats, with soiled clothing and begrimed knuckles. And too often is it true that these are but indications of a worse and deeper condition, which is rapidly becoming a permanent state of soul. Character is being hurt; souls are receiving fatal wounds.

Of course, a great many things about such a school may and should be corrected by the teacher. He can have the dirty walls whitewashed, the floors scrubbed and the rubbish of the playground raked into a heap and burned. He can buy pictures at a reasonable cost, and in different ways may change the atmosphere of the place.

The greater responsibility, however, rests with the parents. They must see that the building is comfortable and conveniently arranged, sanitary and pleasing architecturally. They must see to it that the site chosen has something to commend it other than that it is unfit for any other purpose. It should have a beautiful lawn and stately trees. The building, in its architecture and materials of construction, should compare favorably with the best residences and public edifices of the community.

It is not to be expected that the taxpayers will fill them with marbles of Carrara or with specimens of Titians and Van Dycks; yet they should bear in mind that they are providing a home for their children, where they will receive impressions which will be a part of their lives, made plain in word, action, and manner. Nay, impressions which will have their imprint on character, which will last longer than earthly life, will be received there.

In another place, the sanitary conditions of the school will be discussed further. It is sufficient to say here that parents must ever keep in mind their responsibility in this direction and coöperate with teachers and school officers to make the schoolhouse a place where health shall be conserved, and where only good impressions shall be received.

Public Encouragement of School Celebrations. — Parents should endeavor to create a public spirit in connection with school celebrations. Exercises in which children take a prominent part are always interesting. We crowd the churches whenever the children of the church take charge of the exercises. We love to hear the little tots, in long white dresses, and with flowers in their dimpled fists, speak their pieces or sing their quavering solos.

It would be well if we also had the same interest and enthusiasm in the exercises of the school. It would be well if the children were made to feel that what they do in the way of celebrating the anniversary of the birth of the Father of our Country, or in commemoration of one of our great bards, or in the simple exercises attending that noble act, the planting of a tree, is of enough interest to attract from their vocations the elders of the community. What an inspiration it is to the teacher and school to have the patrons leave their business and spend an afternoon at the school! Nor are the exercises uninteresting or unimportant. If the parents would show their interest and lend the sanction of their presence, many good lessons would be doubly efficacious.

Nor are the children the only ones benefited. For a case in point, let Arbor Day be cited, it being an occasion for public exercises on the campus. Who can say that the planting of a tree is an event interesting to a child only? Every thoughtful man and woman sees in such a deed a deep significance. He who plants a tree is a friend of mankind.

“ He who plants a tree,
He plants love ;
Tents of coolness spreading out above
Wayfarers he may not live to see.
Gifts that grow are best ;
Hands that bless are blest ;
Plant : life does the rest.
Heaven and earth help him who plants a tree,
And his work its own reward shall be.”

The presence of the citizens on such an occasion is of inestimable value. Ought they not to open their eyes to the good they may do by making impressions which will bear fruit in nobility of character? More than their presence is demanded of them. All the exercises incidental to the planting of the tree should not be left to the children, nor to the teacher or the trustees. This is a place for addresses by fathers and mothers, as well as songs and recitations by the children. Every Arbor Day programme should have a place for one or more than one of the leading citizens of the community who are not members of the board.

The great opportunity of Arbor Day is the making for things high and noble and good in character. But in addition to this, the gathering of the fathers and mothers on the school premises will afford opportunities for them to learn for themselves important facts concerning their school. The parents, on such occasions, will become better advised as to the site of the school. They will assure themselves that it is well-kept, well-drained, and healthful. They will see that the surrounding buildings are clean and are so kept that

they do not impair health. They will investigate the water supply and see that the well is so situated that the water is not contaminated by cesspools, privies, and cemeteries. They will, or should, look to the lighting and ventilation of the schoolrooms. All these things and others should be matters of special investigation. If the fathers and mothers care for the life and health, they must see to it that the school surroundings are conducive to both.

It is well to know if the schoolroom is neat. Is the floor dusty and bestrewn with scraps of paper? Are books and papers in order? Are the dictionaries open on the stands? Are the globes permitted to be fingered? Are desks and walls defaced? Parents will find this a most excellent opportunity for quiet observation of the school's condition.

There is to be mentioned another of the many benefits accruing to parents from the meeting on such occasions as those of Arbor Day. The assembly of the people is an important factor in the social life of the community. It is an occasion for the renewal of old acquaintanceship, and the formation of new attachments; an opportunity for the hearty hand-clasp and the cordial word of cheer. The eye kindles with the spirit of good-fellowship, the heart glows with the kindly feelings aroused by the renewal of old ties.

Such occasions are necessary to the social life of every community. The event, like mercy, is twice blessed; it is an uplift to the community at large; it is of incalculable value to the children and the teacher of the school.

Upon every Arbor Day there should be, besides the speech-making by the citizens, appropriate literary exercises by the school. The trees planted should be named. Here, in this corner of the ground, is the Washington elm; yonder stands the Longfellow oak; there, the Bryant maple. What beautiful impress can be made upon the hearts of the children by the serious dedication of noble trees to the memory of our great and noble souls, with whose spirits trees seem to have such a sacred and mysterious sympathy!

The writer well remembers the indescribable swelling of heart which he experienced when, as a boy, he superintended the careful setting of the Longfellow elm on the beautiful school campus, amid the solemn hush induced by the pervading spirit of the occasion. Heads were bared as the school and its visitors stood about until, when the ceremony was completed, we sang, all joining, the *Psalm of Life*. Childish it may seem to some; but one, at least, from the memory of that occasion alone believes that such an event

“ May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil and of good,
Than all the sages can.”

If the parents will gather at the tree-planting, letting the children see that they see in it the beauty of associating noble lives with noble trees, learning lessons of patriotism and duty themselves, and that they recognize the “more” there is in it than the utilitarian result—high and noble as that is in itself—there will be a benefit to that community which will not end with that sun’s going down, nor with the school year’s end, but which will extend its influence in widening circles through the years.

Besides the exercises attendant upon tree-planting, many similar occasions are as productive of good results, if sanctioned by the presence of the school patrons. Such are the celebration of authors’ birthdays, flag-raising, State days, celebrations peculiar to localities, and so forth.

What beautiful, ennobling influences come from setting apart a day for the commemoration of some one of our national bards! How respect and love for the flag are stimulated by making it the subject of serious and beautiful ceremonials! How pride for our State and love for the great Union are fostered by the patriotic, soul-stirring speeches and music of State and National holidays!

Supervision of the Child’s General Reading. — Parents should know the kind of books their children are reading.

Reference has been made already to the teacher's need of acquaintance with books. One of the greatest blessings that can come to the child is the habit of reading good books. Nothing can make for culture and character like this. Nothing can be more harmful to the plastic nature of children than bad books. "I conceive," says Mr. Carlyle, "that books are like men's souls — divided into sheep and goats."

Parents must know how necessary a thing it is that the children read only good books; how important it is that they early make the friendship of those great and simple men who have put down carefully and in an interesting manner their thoughts on life, its mysteries, its shortcomings, and its glorious possibilities. These are sometimes told in an allegorical way, like the story of *The Great Stone Face*; sometimes these thoughts are crystallized into a beautiful poem, sometimes wrought out in a fascinating novel.

Parents must see to it that the boys and girls learn to love to read of a beautiful life. How many men and women there are whose lives have been lovely, whose actions have been inspired by the thrill of great convictions, and who have been actuated by lofty philanthropic or patriotic motives! How many there are whose biographies have been preserved to be beacon lights for succeeding generations!

The children must be led in some way to approach with love the great kind souls who will speak to them so tenderly and strongly out of the pages of books. In this way more than in any other, I believe, will the children be brought to realize themselves and their possibilities. What end of education is more important than this? Making the true, the beautiful, and the good of literature a part of the lives of the children is true education, is it not?

Our schoolmen have felt these things for a long time, and to-day we are beginning to realize some results of their endeavors. One of the best results is the Pupils' Reading Circles, which have been organized in many States. A

number of men and women in each of these States, organized as a board of directors, have selected from the wealth of juvenile literature a number of books, each year. These are books of good reading, chosen as suitable for the various grades of the primary and grammar school departments, and sometimes also for the high school grades. These are offered always at low rates, and the result is that thousands of children are reading good, clean, and wholesome literature.

The establishment of these Circles is having its effect on the fiber of their character; and the coming rulers of the nation are certain to prove its good effects. The whole Nation will be greatly benefited by this movement for good reading. Every year finds many thousands newly enrolled as members of these Pupils' Reading Circles.

The father has here a good opportunity for helpfulness. If he will spend the small sum necessary for the purchase of the books, and enjoy them with his boys and girls about the winter evening's blazing hearth, he will find, perhaps, much in them that will meet his needs as well as the children's. Wise men bestow their benediction upon him and them, and he will find, as they will, that "his heart is getting softer, his blood warmer, his brain quicker, and his spirit entering into Living Peace." Helping the children is just another way of helping ourselves.

Many States have as yet no organization of this kind. Where such is the case, we hope the day will speedily come when there will be such an organization. In some States, however, public money is provided for school library purposes. This should be always utilized and expended with the greatest care. The selection should be in the hands of the teacher and a committee of patrons chosen on account of their fitness for the place. The member of the committee who "goes in for solid reading" should not be allowed to dictate the entire selection. His goodly share should be allowed. Neither must the member who argues for "light reading" be permitted to have everything his way.

Above all, let the sort of book which is easily recognized by its mawkish sentimentalism and its vicious style, and which has found its way into so many libraries, be shunned as mental poison. The books of lighter nature should have characters who are real men and women, real boys and girls, with the true manly and womanly traits and the real evil tendencies of life. In another chapter will be found further suggestions relative to books suitable for school libraries.

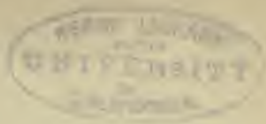
Where there is no public money, the coöperation of teacher and parent should be exercised to provide funds by private enterprise and entertainments. In this way many schools have provided themselves with good working libraries, and with books of general culture.

Let the people see that their schoolhouse is supplied with a well-filled bookcase, and then let them see to it that their teachers are qualified to whisper to the little eager ears the magic word which will unlock this wonderful treasure-house of books.

II

DUTIES OF TEACHERS

DUTIES OF SCHOOL OFFICERS



CHAPTER II

DUTIES OF TEACHERS

High Ideals. — The teacher should imbue himself with a feeling of the importance of his work. If he would gain the confidence of his employers, he must be prepared to show them evidence of a living interest in his profession. But this cannot be shown unless it is deeply felt. In contemplating his duty, the teacher should form elevated conceptions of his sphere of action, and he should aim at nothing less than such an ascendancy over the minds of his pupils as will enable him fitly to govern, to instruct, and to elevate them as moral beings.

Intercourse with Parents. — He should seek frequent opportunity for intercourse with the parents. Though the advances towards this point, by the strict rules of etiquette, should be made, it would seem, by the parents themselves, yet, as a general thing, taking the world as we find it, the teacher must take the lead. He must often introduce himself uninvited to the people among whom he dwells, calling at their homes in the spirit of his vocation, and conversing with them freely about his duty to their children and to themselves.

Every parent, of course, will feel bound to exercise courteous civility in his own house, and by an interview perhaps a difference of opinion, a prejudice, or a suspicion may be removed, and the foundation of mutual good understanding and cordiality may be laid. It may be very useful to have an interview with such parents as have been disturbed by

some administration of discipline upon members of their families.

Let us not be understood, however, to recommend that the teacher should ever go to the parent in a cringing, unmanly spirit. It would probably be far better that the parties should ever remain entire strangers than that their meeting should be an occasion of humiliating retraction on the side of the teacher. Neither should parents ever be allowed to expect that the teacher always will come, as a matter of duty, to their confessional. This is not our meaning. But the meeting of the parties as men, as gentlemen, as Christians, as coadjutors, for the child's welfare, will always be attended with good results.

The teacher should be willing to explain all his plans to the parents of his pupils. If they had implicit confidence in him and would readily and fully give him all the facilities for carrying forward his designs without explanation, then perhaps this direction might not be necessary. But as the world is, he cannot expect spontaneous confidence. They wish to know his designs, and it is best they should be informed. The readiest way for the teacher to interest them in the business of education will be to converse with them freely concerning the measures he intends to adopt. If his plans be judicious, he, of course, can show good reasons why they should be carried into effect.

Parents are usually ready to listen to reason, when it is directed to the benefit of their children. Many a parent who, upon the first announcement of a measure in school, has stoutly opposed it would entertain a very different opinion after a little conversation with the teacher, and ever after would be most ready to countenance and to support it.

It seems to us that a teacher may safely encourage inquiry into all his movements in school. There is an old saying (in our opinion a mischievous one) which enjoins it as a duty upon all to "tell no tales out of school." We see no objection to the reverse of this. Why may not everything be

told, if told correctly? Would it not do away with very much of the existing suspicion already spoken of, if it were understood that there is no mystery about the school? Let this be the case, and the teacher will be careful never to do anything or to say anything which he would not be willing to have related to the parents, or even to be witnessed by them. We would that the walls of our schoolrooms were transparent as you look inward, so that any individual unperceived might view with his own eyes the movements within. We believe that there has always been too much mystery within our schoolrooms, and the sooner we have daylight through them the better.

In this connection it may be proper to suggest that the teacher should encourage the frequent visitation of his school by the parents of his pupils. When this takes place, let him be exceedingly careful that he does not in any instance deviate from his accustomed usage on their account.

Truth and Frankness.—The teacher should be frank in all his representations to parents, concerning their children. This is a point upon which many teachers most lamentably err. In this, as in every other case, "honesty is the best policy." If an instructor informs a parent, during the term, that his son is making rapid progress, or, as the phrase is, "doing very well," he excites in him high expectations; and if, at the end of the term, it turns out otherwise, the parent, with much justice, may be expected to load him with censure instead of praise.

Let a particular answer, and a true one, always be given to the inquiry, "How does my son get along?" The parent has a right to know, and the teacher has no right to disguise any of the facts. Sometimes teachers of private schools fear the loss of a pupil, and therefore use some indefinite expression, which, however, the doting parent is usually ready to interpret to his child's advantage. But sooner or later the truth will appear; and when the teacher is once convicted of misrepresentation in this particular, there is

rarely any forgiveness for him. For this reason, and for his own love of truth, for his own reputation, and for the child's welfare, he should keep nothing back. Tell the whole story plainly and frankly, and the father, if he be a gentleman, will thank you for your faithfulness to him; and if he have any sense of justice, he will be ready to coöperate with you for his child's improvement.

The main duties which the teacher directly owes to the parent we think we have now noticed. He should study faithfully and feelingly the relations he sustains to his pupils and their parents; he should carefully perform every known duty in its time and its manner, according to the dictates of his own conscience. Let him do this, and he will be happy. Yet when he has done all he can do, the question of his success will depend very much upon the parents of his pupils. They must come forward and crown the work, or very much will, after all, be wanting.

COMMENT ON PAGE'S SPEECH

It will be understood that Mr. Page, in his address, has pointed out only the relative duties of the teacher. He has before him all the time the idea of coöperation, and therefore it is only the *mutual* duties of each class that are defined. A discussion of the teacher's absolute duties would, of course, open up the whole subject of pedagogics. In addition to what Mr. Page has said so admirably, a few supplementary remarks are here appended.

Tact. — In maintaining satisfactory relations with the parents of the community, the teacher¹ will find much need of tact. Especially will this be the case in many communi-

¹ The word *teacher* is here intended to include the principal of a graded school, who is really the principal teacher. The superintendent in a system of city schools is to be considered rather an officer of the school board than a member of the corps of teachers. The words *principal* and *superintendent* are often used interchangeably in the West. When the

ties, when, as Mr. Page advises, the teacher has "imbued himself with a feeling of the importance of his work." This feeling, which every true teacher possesses, will lead him to avail himself of all the training for his high office that his time, means, and opportunity will permit. It will cause him to feel that his educational journal is a necessity. It will prompt him to procure and read books on pedagogics and school management. It will cause him to acquaint himself more fully with the master minds of the great literary world. It will lead him into the State Teachers' Reading Circle. It will send him to the university or to the normal school. He will not dare to come before pupils upon whom, he realizes, he is to make impressions which will last to eternity, unless he has availed himself of every possible aid within reach.

It is true, as Mr. Page remarks, that all this will inspire in his employers confidence in his abilities. But if he wishes to put into practice the ideas of method which he has received at the normal school, or which, as a result of his training, he has been able to work out for himself—if he wishes to put these into practice in a community in which the schools have not been in touch with the advancing thought of the educational world, I am sure there will be need for the greatest degree of tact. He wishes to use clay modeling, perhaps. It may be that he wishes to throw geography and history together, and so gain time in his work. Perhaps it is some form of manual training that he wishes to add. Perhaps he insists that spelling must be more than the memorizing of words of whose meaning the child has no more conception than of differential calculus.

aggregate enrollment of pupils is 1200 or more, there is need for a city superintendent, whose work is materially different from that of the principal of a graded school. The relations of the city school superintendent to the principals and teachers are discussed in books on school supervision. The county superintendent, like the city superintendent, is a school officer rather than a teacher, and is to be considered as the representative of a board of education.

It may be that he wishes to provide on his programme a place for music and drawing.

He will find, in many school districts and towns, that unless he acts with great tact and discretion, there will be much looking askance at his innovations. By a wise procedure, he may bring the greater part of the community to see that he is not chasing "fads," but is really introducing into the school the things that will tend to its improvement and the good of the children.

Many a teacher, full of the enthusiasm of his high calling, has applied himself with much vigor to bringing about a revolution in the educational life of his school. Starting in with the confidence of the people, he has quickly turned their confidence to suspicion by attacking the old methods with sharp criticism. Unwittingly, he has struck at the pride of the community, which may be loth to be told of its ignorance and its ultra conservatism. More is accomplished by gentlemanly courtesy than by blustering or by stubbornness. It is better to go slowly and obtain what you want than to demand it quickly and fail to get it at all.

The Teacher an Adviser. — The teacher should be competent to give advice on every matter relating to the school. He should fully acquaint himself with its material and educational needs. He should become familiar with the leading principles of school architecture, lighting, heating, and ventilation, according to later authorities on these subjects. Unfortunately, these are matters upon which many who have been long engaged in educational work have but a very limited knowledge.

A teacher's thorough acquaintance with the requirements of good text-books, and with the comparative merits of various books in the same lines of work, will add to the confidence which the school officer will repose in his judgment. This is a matter upon which the actual teacher, of all persons, should be competent to pass judgment in the light of experience.

It is inevitable that text-books will be changed, from time to time. The change should be made always for a better and more suitable work. It should never be made without a careful investigation and comparison of the books under consideration.

The teacher should be a competent judge of suitable books for the general reading of children. The subject of school libraries and Pupils' Reading Circles is discussed elsewhere in this volume. The enterprising teacher will not fail to interest himself in the matter of a local supply of accessible and suitable books of general reading for the young.

The Teacher's Relations to School Officers.—The teacher should well understand his relation to the school officers. In the following chapter the history of the school officer is given, and his relations to the teacher are discussed. The question of the relation of the two is not clearly defined, as yet, by the legislatures and courts. It is recognized that the teacher has authority derived from other sources than the officer or the school board, but the scope of his authority independent of that which the trustee or the board confers upon him is not clearly defined.

It is well for the teacher to understand as clearly as he can his rights under the law, and his independent authority. It is not meant to be said that he must be a lawyer, but he should acquaint himself with the records in cases which touch upon this subject. There are several journals now published which make a point of presenting digests of all such cases. By a study of these, he can bring himself to a position where he can render unto the trustees the things that are theirs, and reserve for himself the things that are his own.

In all this there is no thought of encouraging or suggesting an attitude of opposition, or of defiance to the board. It must be clearly understood that this is not what is meant. On the contrary, the teacher should always yield a willing and ready obedience to the school board. In all matters of general management the directions of the trustees are to be

followed most implicitly, in so far, of course, as they do not violate the conscientious scruples of the teacher.

It is possible to secure the best results only when the school officers and the teacher are acting in hearty accord. The teacher's opinion should be asked (since he is an expert, or is supposed to be), in determining the final action of the board on matters which have a direct bearing on the educational side of its duties.

In this connection it should be said that, in a way not inconsistent with self-respect, the teacher should show respect to the trustee, as such, even though the latter be not the equal of the teacher socially and in point of culture. There is, of course, a kind of respect which is naturally shown for the man to whom one owes his place, and upon whose favor "bread and butter," perhaps, depends. But, it is insisted, respect is due to his position as an officer of the school district or city, aside from any selfish show of respect for an employer. This is a fact often lost sight of by young teachers, and sometimes by older ones.

It is often the case that the trustee is inferior in point of scholarship. He may be unlettered, indeed, and may be a good officer for all that. More often than otherwise it is the case that the trustee is selected on account of other qualifications than those of scholarship. Men of little or no erudition have fought their way to the front in spite of difficulties. They often make very good officers, because they are eager to do what they can to remove obstacles from the paths of the young people coming to manhood under more favorable circumstances. They may be good managers in matters of finance. Public funds should receive more care and should be regarded more sacredly than private capital. Too often men are extremely reckless in the disbursement or investment of public moneys, acting under a strange notion that when the owner is the many the trust is not at all so sacred as when the owner is a single person or a small number of persons acting as a company. Men of this class

should have no place on the school board. Very often school committeemen are selected who will be sure to handle with proper care the people's money.

Again, it may be that persons of recognized tact and skill in molding opinion are for this specific reason selected as trustees. These are usually gentlemen of long experience and sagacious insight, and they are expected to bring to bear upon the important affairs of the school the same critical judgment which they have been observed to display in the management of private affairs and the direction of public movements. The point we wish to make is, that there is usually a good reason behind the elevation of every man who is selected by the community to take charge of the affairs of the school.

Teachers sometimes lose sight of the fact that the officers are selected for the foregoing and other similar reasons. Before them rises the idea that scholarship is the essential attribute of the good trustee. Especially is this the case with the younger teachers, who are not apt to think much of other reasons for the choosing of officers. They are inclined to think that the business men and the professional men not trained in the university can have none but old-fashioned educational ideas.

The scholar should be on the board, it is true. His broad view will work out clearly the ends to be accomplished, by shaping the course aright. He can show that the truest economy does not lie always in the direction of the least expenditure. But others than the scholar may be educated too. I have met many men who have had no conception of Greek roots, and who could not analyze a simple flower, but who have had a sufficient degree of culture to recognize the literary beauty, as well as to feel the moral uplift, of the twenty-third Psalm, and to whom

— “The meanest flower that blooms can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.”

Are such men out of place on the school committee?

Whether the trustee be educated or not, whether he be a scholar or not, whether he be or be not a man of financial and executive ability or a man of influential standing, the teacher owes him a respect as an officer and as the representative of the people. It is pleasant to see added to such respect the warmth of personal friendship and regard.

Many teachers find themselves in an attitude of opposition to the board when it is entirely unnecessary that such should be the case. Principals who possess little tact, who regard the views of the trustees as of no importance, and, without really stopping to consider them, condemn them beforehand because they do not conform to the notions of their own pet theorists or to the supposed principles of their latest and best-varnished hobbies, come into collision with the board very soon; and usually it is not the board that is injured by the contact.

It is true, too true, that teachers are sometimes apt to be ardent supporters of the latest fad. We mount a fresh hobby periodically, and from what we consider to be its lofty elevation, we cannot see that the broad common sense of the practical school men would have given us a better lift, had we permitted them, and that, after much hard spurring, we have not been able to get past the starting post.

CHAPTER III

DUTIES OF SCHOOL OFFICERS

Absolute and Relative Duties.—The absolute duties of school officers are definitely laid down in the statute books. Direction is there given them to raise money for school purposes, to erect suitable buildings, to employ teachers, and, generally, to oversee the operations of the school. These duties are performed often with a perfunctory reference to the position and not with the idea of rendering a service to the community and the State by providing the best means for the education of the youth.

With this latter view in mind, many duties which seemed absolute become relative, and the school officer sees that there is need of coöperation with parent and teacher to secure the best results. It is with a view of pointing out some of these mutual duties that this chapter is written.

The school officer is comparatively a new creation. The change in the management of schools gave rise to his office. In former years, each schoolmaster was proprietor of his school. Each school was independent of every other school, and was supported by tuition charges.

When the system of free schools was established, it became necessary to have the people represented by a trustee or a board of trustees. Before the institution of this office, but after the control of the school had passed from the direct charge of the patrons, its duties were incidentally performed by other officers of the town. The earliest record we have of a school committee in the United States is in the

Massachusetts law of 1826, which provided that the towns of that State should select them.

The School Officer and the Teacher.—The school, it must be remembered, is a very ancient institution. We have records of English schools which extend backward to the time of Edward III., while the early schools and famous teachers of Judea and Egypt and Greece and Rome are familiar to all readers of history.

The teacher, therefore, had acquired a distinct legal status long before the creation of the school officer. Definite and clear rights had become his by decisions of courts in matters of controversy, and by long-continued usage. These rights and powers are now his rather by a sort of educational common law than by statutory enactment; and they exist independently of the authority of the trustee. An erroneous idea is prevalent that the teacher derives *all* the authority he has from the officer who employs him.

The distinction between the powers and duties of each are very clearly set forth in an excellent address read by Supt. A. P. Marble, formerly of Worcester, Mass., now of Omaha, Neb., before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association at its Washington meeting, in 1877.

Superintendent Marble says: "There is the same distinction between the two as between the common law and the code, as I understand it; the same as between the constitution of England, which is known through a body of precedents, and the Constitution of this country, which is a written document; the same distinction which is found between the officers of an ancient monarchy, who find their powers in long-established usage, and the officers of a new republic, where the duty of each officer is specifically defined by law.

"My idea of the relation between the teacher and the school officer may be still further illustrated by the authority of the State, as compared with the National Government. The State is a sovereignty; but in entering the Federal Government and becoming a part of one great Nation, the

State has surrendered a specific part of that general and undefined power called sovereignty. If we inquire what are the powers of the Federal Government, we must seek them in the Constitution. If we seek to know what a State may do, we find nothing definite; everything which a sovereign power may do belongs to the State to do, except what has been surrendered in the National Constitution.

"In like manner the powers and duties of the teacher in the public schools include everything that is inherent in the office of teacher, in the broad understanding of that term which we have from tradition; and the exceptions to this broad and general authority of the teacher are found in the specific laws, and what belongs to them by implication, which prescribe certain powers and duties to school officers.

"The modern public school teacher is the traditional teacher shorn of certain functions which have been by specific laws imposed upon the school officer. We find the authority and duty of the teacher by subtraction — by eliminating from the general notion of what belongs to the teacher all that has been assigned to the school officer. We find the authority and duty of the school officer, on the other hand, by addition — by augmenting the general notion of what belongs to the proprietors or the founders of a school (like the chartered schools of England, for example), by the specific duties assigned to these officers from time to time in the law.

"Traditionally, then, the teacher stands in the place of the parent for all the broad purposes of education. Whatever belongs to the parent belongs to him in this regard, and the parent's rights and duties are inferior to no earthly power. Parents are responsible for their children, and their authority is commensurate with their duty. Under the Roman law the lives, even, of children were in the hands of parents. Under our modern laws these extremes of parental authority have been abridged, but parents may still exercise all reasonable control over their children. For the

purposes of the school, and while in school, the teacher assumes all these broad powers of the parent.

“In very early times the teacher instructed and guided those who resorted to him voluntarily, attracted by the power of his wisdom. Such a teacher was Socrates, and Plato, and Aristotle. Mediæval schools founded by charitable donations, established by those who had charge of the foundations and who selected the teachers, were administered by the teachers. The pupils were intrusted to them by the parents, who delegated their authority to those teachers. So it was in the chartered schools of England. *Magister*, the master, is a term which implies authority. In those schools, even to this day, the student is in the hands of the master, or teacher, whose authority is as unlimited as that of the parents. The right to inflict punishment, and every other reasonable right, belongs to the teacher and is intrusted to him by the parent.

“This traditional notion of the teacher’s power and duties is recognized in the school laws of every State. In these laws the powers and duties of the teacher, and what a school is, are assumed to be known.

“No specific duties are assigned to the teacher except the implied duty of teaching a good school. There is a singular absence of all law on the subject. The only duties specifically assigned to the teacher are of a merely formal character, such as having a license or certificate of qualification to teach, and making out and certifying certain school statistics. All the functions belonging to the teacher are left to be inferred from the traditional notion of what a teacher is, and from the purposes of the school, which are the right nurture and training of youth. The only exception to the above—the only specific duty of teachers in the laws—relates to moral culture. It is expressed in the statutes of Massachusetts as follows :

“‘It shall be the duty of all instructors of youth to exert their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and

youth committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety and justice, and a sacred regard to truth, love of their country, humanity, and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry, and frugality, chastity, moderation, temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornaments of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded; and it shall be the duty of such instructors to endeavor to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will admit, into a clear understanding of the tendency of the above-mentioned virtues, to preserve and perfect a republican constitution and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their future happiness, and also to point out to them the evil tendencies of the opposite ones.' In spirit, though not in terms, the laws of many, if not most, of the other States contain the same. By tradition, then, confirmed by this single statute, the education of children is intrusted to the teacher by the parents, and all the powers of the parents and all the authority necessary to this great end are conferred upon the teacher. This authority is amplified by numerous decisions of the courts."

The Teacher's Authority. — Dr. Emerson E. White, to whom we have listened for so many years with delight and interest, and who has said so many wise things to the teachers of the country, has touched upon this subject in his recent valuable book on *School Management*. He says:

"The first of these conditions is the teacher's possession of requisite authority—an authority clearly recognized by pupils and patrons, and all others directly interested in the school. This is an important condition, not only for easy control, but also for the highest success in instruction. The more the teacher represents officially as well as personally in a school, the higher will be the pupils' confidence in him, the easier his control, the more effective his plans, and the more successful his efforts. This is an obvious principle—too obvious for extended discussion, were it more generally observed.

"The teacher is not only *in loco parentis*, but he also stands in his own place, and, in virtue of his office, is vested with rights and powers, as well as with responsibilities and duties. It is important that these inherent rights be recognized and honored by all. It is the beginning of serious trouble in a school when the officers thereof call in question the rightful authority of the teacher, and this is often done ignorantly.

"There are not a few persons who suppose that all of the teacher's authority in a school is delegated by the school board, and hence that this authority may be limited or denied by such board at its pleasure. This supposition overlooks the historical fact that the teacher existed long before the school board, and that, in virtue of his office, he was endowed with inherent rights and authority. The law nowhere denies or annuls these historic and inherent teaching powers, nor does it invest them in the school board. They remain with the teacher, an essential attribute of his high office.

"It is true that the law gives school boards the power to employ teachers, to prescribe courses of study and instruction, and to exercise supervisory authority over the schools; but supervision is not teaching, and the supervisory function as embodied in the school board does not include teaching functions. The school board may employ teachers; but neither its officers nor its members are teachers, and they cannot wisely or legally exercise teaching powers or functions.¹

¹ Superintendent Marble, in discussing the relative duties of school officers and teachers, advances an opinion sustained by a decision of the courts, and also by no less an authority than Horace Mann. Says Mr. Marble:

"The power of inspecting and examining a school gives the school officer the right to act as teacher for the time being. In the examination he may listen while the teacher conducts the exercise, or he may conduct it himself and require the teacher to listen, and while performing this duty he is clothed with all the authority of the teacher, and he may apply correction and discipline while acting in this capacity. (Peck v. Smith, 41 Conn., 442.)"

On this point we have also the opinion of one of the most eminent educational writers, Horace Mann:

"The authority of the school board to prescribe needful regulations for the government of the schools ought not to be construed as conferring the right to abridge or annul inherent teaching powers. Rules relating to the details of instruction and discipline should, for this reason, be most carefully considered. No school board, for example, can rightfully prescribe that teachers shall punish with a rod any pupil who whispers without permission, this being a clear assumption of the teaching function; but a board may properly enact, if this be necessary, that no pupil shall be punished with a rod for failing in a lesson, such punishment being a clear abuse of the teacher's authority, and, it may be added, an abuse so obvious that no regulation ought to be required for its correction.

"As a rule, school regulations touching the *details* of discipline and instruction, if enacted, should be prohibitory of obvious abuses, and not didactic or directive. It is the teacher's function to determine when punishment is required, to devise detailed plans of instruction, to assign lessons and

"During the period of visitation the committee have the entire control of the school. For the time being it is their school, and the teacher is their servant. They may decide what classes shall be called upon to perform exercises and in what studies. They may direct the teacher to conduct the examination or may conduct it wholly themselves, or they may combine both methods. In fine, they may dismiss the teacher for the hour and pursue the examination in his absence. Should any scholar misbehave himself or prove refractory or contumacious to the committee while they are engaged in examining the school, it is presumed that they have an authority to suspend, to expel, or to punish on the spot, in the same way as the teacher may do in case of like misconduct committed against himself. (10th Reps., p. 183.)"

In spite of the eminence of this authority, we are inclined to believe that Superintendent White has the true idea. It seems that Superintendent Marble's own words, contained in the same address and quoted in another place, would be the best argument against the view he expresses here. As for Horace Mann, it is clear that it had not occurred to him that the teacher has other powers than those conferred upon him by the school board. It is evident that he wrote with the idea (which is still so prevalent) that the teacher's powers are a delegation of the board's powers. It seems to us absurd to think of the trustee as standing *in loco parentis*. School officers cannot in any way usurp the teaching function.

exercises, to decide when they are properly prepared, and to determine the steps to be taken in reaching a desired result. These and other like duties are elements of teaching, and as such belong primarily to the teacher.

“One of the tendencies in present school administration that most needs correction is an increasing assumption by school officers of the rights and duties inherent in the teacher’s office. This tendency is not only seen in school regulations that violate the principles above stated, but more seriously in supervision, and especially in supervision by members of school boards, acting as individuals or as committees.

“It is believed to be not an uncommon thing for a school director or trustee to dictate to teachers the methods to be used in teaching given subjects, and also what they are to require the pupils to do. Teachers are told authoritatively that they must not require pupils to prepare spelling lessons by writing; that all spelling exercises must be oral; that pupils must be taught the alphabet before they attempt to read; that pupils must be permitted to read at least one verse each, and that they must read twice a day; that the pupils must recite by turn; that pupils must not ‘begin multiplication’ until they have learned the multiplication table; that the rules in arithmetic must be learned by heart before any problems are solved; that the text in geography must be committed to memory; that no wall maps are to be used in recitations; that all tables in primary grades are to be recited in concert, etc.

“It is easy to see the mischief which must result from such official dictation in the details of teaching, and it is obvious that such dictation is even more mischievous, and perhaps more common, with reference to discipline; and all this mischief may be done by a school officer without his even dreaming that neither the law nor the school regulations give him an iota of official authority in these matters; that he has no more legal right ‘to play teacher’ in the schools than any other citizen.

"It may, of course, be entirely proper for a school director or committeeman to call attention to what may seem defects in a school, or to make suggestions looking to its improvement—and every true teacher will welcome such efforts to render assistance—but we are not now considering the propriety of *official advice*, but of authoritative direction—a very different matter.

"It is believed that there are thousands of American teachers, especially in country districts, who are not teaching according to their best knowledge or best judgment, because of official interference or *the fear of it*; and for this reason hundreds of schools are in disorder, with a sacrifice of needed efficiency and progress.

"What a happy change would occur in these schools were the teachers officially encouraged to do their best, and, to this end, to seek for the most helpful information and the most approved plans and methods! If this were done, in the place of stagnation and dull routine there would soon appear order, life, and progress.

"This mistake of official dictation is sometimes made by superintendents and principals; and it always occurs when a superintendent prescribes the details of instruction and discipline, and then enforces the same by personal oversight and direction of the teacher's work. Such a course of procedure reduces the teacher to an operative, and is subversive of all true teaching.

"The most helpful supervision does not dictate or prescribe details; but it asks for *results*, and then so instructs, inspires, and guides teachers, that they freely put their best thought and effort into whatever they do. This means professional progress, growth in skill, and increasing success."

Needs of the Community.—So much for the question of authority. As has been said, the absolute duties of the school trustee are laid down in the statute books. While they are, for the most part, duties which he can perform perfunctorily, they will become relative duties if he be a

citizen who has at heart the best interests of the community. That is, he will consult the needs of the school and the interests of the community in performing the statutory requirements of his office. He will act in coöperation with the parents and with the teacher in providing for the necessities of the school.

A careful consideration of the real needs and wishes of the school community is the first duty of the school officer. It is not meant by this statement that the trustee is not to act for himself. Indeed, very much of the power he will wield, very much of the efficiency he will have as a public servant, will depend upon the firmness with which he holds to decisions once made, after the exercise of careful judgment. All his actions must be the result of his independent thought in regard to the matter under consideration. Unless such conclusions are reached under a misapprehension of the facts, he must stand by them.

However much this is true, it is also true that important action should be taken only after careful study of the best interests of both parties, and, in many cases, after seeking the advice of parents and teachers. For example, let us take the case of the town or city where there is a superintendent of schools and a board of education. It is clearly under the authority of the school board to select teachers and textbooks. But these selections should be made only after consultation with the superintendent or teacher in charge. He is an expert in such matters. In fact, while the names of teachers of graded schools should be passed upon by the committee on teachers, yet the selections should be left largely to the principal, or superintendent. He has opportunities for judging from an educational standpoint the merits of individual teachers, and of determining the extent of their pedagogical training. Virtually the selection of the corps of teachers should be in his hands.

Again, the principal or superintendent, and expert teachers in his corps, should be competent to decide as to the merits

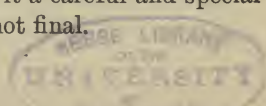
of books recommended for adoption. It is not only a question of the facts contained in a book, but it is also a question of arrangement and presentation of those facts. The principal or superintendent is the expert selected by the school committee, who is competent to pass upon these matters.

In the selection of the school site and a plan for the building, and in the expenditures of the school, the advice of the patrons as well as that of the superintendent should be valuable to the board. Miscellaneous and public advice and criticism are, of course, annoying. But the members can sound the sentiment of the men who, they know, represent the best thought of the community in such matters, and profit by their word of advice. These are matters in which they have the right to advise. These are matters in which they are vitally interested.

The school board is sometimes between two fires. There may be a strong sentiment in the community opposed to the carrying forward of innovations just as strongly recommended by the superintendent and another faction. In that case it will have to weigh carefully the situation, and, having arrived at a conclusion which seems best for the school, announce it boldly and carry forward its plans.

Personal Responsibility. — Every member should feel his personal responsibility. It is now the custom to refer to committees, departments of business which belong to the province of the board. There are committees on buildings and grounds, committees on text-books, committees on teachers and salaries, committees on ways and means, etc. This is an excellent plan, and is, indeed, the only practicable plan where the business of the board is large.

In too many cases, however, members feel relieved from any responsibility as to matters which have been referred to, or are under the authority of, committees of which they do not happen to be members. It is true that the committee is to make of the subject referred to it a careful and special study; but, after all, its decision is not final.



The committee simply reports a plan which seems to it, under the circumstances, to be the best. It is the duty of the other members of the board to exercise their individual judgment in the matter, and act accordingly. It is not right for them to vote favorably on the committee's report solely because they have confidence in the committee. Their individual responsibility should be remembered. Too often honest members of corrupt boards have gone down in the gloom of ignominy with corrupt official associates simply because they have not possessed this sense of personal responsibility.

Officers Responsible for Teachers' Recompense. — Boards should see that suitable recompense is given to the teacher. The needs of the teacher have been discussed in another chapter. The school board should have an appreciation of these. They must remember the great responsibility, the duty, "vastly great," of the teacher. They should not employ teachers who do not feel the need of libraries or who do not care to become members of the Reading Circle or to subscribe for educational journals.

School boards should appreciate the great good which teachers derive from an occasional visit to other schools. These often require some expenditure of money. The board should expect the teachers to wish to make such visits, and should have this in mind when it is considering the matter of compensation.

All live teachers will make it a point to attend the County, State, and possibly the National Association meetings. It is right that they should. They derive inestimable benefit from the discussion of difficulties with which they meet from day to day; from the deeper thought of trained experts in the investigation of special lines of inquiry; from the contact with the great men of the profession; from the travel to and from the place of meeting; from the professional interest and enthusiasm and sociability always so manifest when many who have the same ends in view assemble

on such occasions. The school board should have this fact in view when it considers the matter of teachers' salaries.

We feel that we cannot speak too often or too urgently of the salary question. So long as teachers are poorly paid, we cannot expect many of the best men and women to remain in the profession. They cannot afford to do so. Or if they do remain, they are prevented from working up to the full measure of their abilities and from following out their cherished plans for extending their usefulness.

Dignity and Common Sense.—School officers should possess personal dignity, and be free from affectation. There are many qualifications for office considered in the selection of trustees. Each member is supposedly chosen on account of some special qualification which fits him for the position. He is either a man of business experience, or of high and influential social standing, or of known scholarship, or all three. He is not—or at least he should not be—a man taken at random or appointed in payment of political services rendered his party. The selection is, or should be, made carefully and for some good reason.

It is sometimes the case that men who exhibit good sense in every position and experience in life, but who do not possess high educational qualifications, are selected for the office, and make good officers. If they do not make the mistake of considering their election an indorsement of supposed scholarship which they do not really possess, and if they bring to the discharge of their duties their customary good sense, they are valuable members of the board.

It is sometimes the case, however, that a member of this kind, who is really a hard-headed man of business and is trusted by the community, takes his selection as a school officer as a recognition of scholarship. Because of the fact that he is connected with the schools it follows (to him, of course) that he must be a person who represents the learning of the whole township or city. He forgets that the man of little scholarship may be really a man of broad practical

education. He fails to see that a man may be broad enough to be alive to the advance of the times and the needs of the school of to-day, and yet be a little slipshod in his spelling. He thinks that it is his duty to present himself to the school as representing scholarship, rather than an executive trust.

Such a one must have been a school officer who lived in Indiana, according to a well-known legend of that State. Having been appointed trustee—so the story goes—and the school having been in session for a few weeks, he visited it one afternoon, full of the idea of making an impression. A class in reading was reciting. The subject matter of the selection in hand was historical, and the word *massacre* occurred once or twice in the course of the lesson. It fell to a luckless, tow-headed little boy to read a paragraph containing it. The boy read well, and all was well until he reached this word, which he pronounced correctly. Here was the trustee's opportunity. Frightening the boy with an awful frown, he said:

"What's that, sir? How did you call that word?"

Again the boy pronounced the word correctly.

"Don't you see," thundered the school magnate, "that m-a-s-s-a, massa, c-r-e, kree, spells massakree? M-a-s-s-a-c-r-e, massakree!"

The teacher interposed here, with the explanation that she was responsible for the pronunciation, and added, quietly, "I think Webster will give us authority for the way we have been pronouncing it."

"Bring me the Dictionary," ordered the trustee, pompously, feeling certain that he would be vindicated, since *c-r-e* could spell nothing but *kree*.

The Dictionary was brought to the great man's knee, and, amid a breathless silence of some moments, his great fingers laboriously searched the columns for the word. Finally it was found. He studied it for a few more painful moments. He adjusted his steel-bowed glasses, and studied it further. At last, when convinced that his eyes were not deceiving

him, he closed the big book with a bang, and remarked, impressively :

“Well, I should never have believed that *Daniel Webster* could have made a mistake like that!”

Of course, this is an extreme case. Yet occasionally we hear of a trustee or other officer who imagines himself to be invested with superior erudition and a pompous dignity on account of his selection as one able to manage school affairs.

On the other hand, there is a kind of dignity which the school officer should have. Indeed, he *will* have it if he be selected on account of experience and breadth of view, and if he be the proper man for the community to select. It is the kind of dignity that will enable him to bear himself with ease at the gathering of the people on formal occasions, as commencements.

It is becoming customary to dispense with the old-style commencements, and to substitute therefor an address by some distinguished stranger. It is a good thing to have these addresses, for they are a potent means of education in themselves; but the loss of the old commencement is to be deplored. The essays of the young people, the white dresses, the ribbons, the flowers, and the address and presentation of the diplomas by the president of the board—all these have their effect, and, somehow, without them there would be a loss of some of the crowning glories of the scholar-life, a lack of something of which the stranger's address, however profound or brilliant, could not take the place.

The members of the school board should be men whose personal dignity will cause them to grace an occasion of this kind, and will bring to all occasions a sense of respect for the position, as one bestowed only upon those fitted for it by the quality of their citizenship.

Good Tools and Appointments.—The school officers should be free in supplying material necessities. We are always ready to assent to the statement that if the carpenter is to

perform a piece of particularly fine work he will need other tools than a hatchet and a jackknife. He may get along, slowly but well enough, with his hatchet and knife in work where the boards do not need to be smooth and polished or the joints close. But we are usually willing to concede that, even in his rough labor, he can work more rapidly and with better satisfaction for his patron with additional tools.

It is to be hoped that the teachers' needs of tools will be recognized as quickly and his demand for supplies answered as promptly as the carpenter's are. The school needs good blackboards, charts, maps, globes, and apparatus for experiments in physics and chemistry, botany, and zoölogy. Above all it needs books — dictionaries, cyclopedias, reference books of historical and mythological and biographical subjects, and supplementary texts in all the studies of the curriculum. It is not necessary to point out how necessary it is that the pupil observe for himself, how important that he be not confined to the narrow bounds of the text-book of a single writer.

The needs of the school are many. The trustees, while making the most prudent and economical expenditure of the public finances, should see that the work of education is not hampered. Often petty economy is really the greatest extravagance. Procuring the best there is for the children, and using it under competent direction, is the greatest economy, because it is the investment that will bring the largest returns.

The subject of school architecture and appointments, including the various considerations of heating, ventilation, lighting, etc., is one of very great importance to the school officer, for it has much to do with the comfort, health, and advancement of the pupils of every school. It is a subject with which he should be familiar in all its bearings, to the end that his worthy efforts may be seconded by an enlightened judgment in all his acts relating to the material well-being of teachers and pupils.

III

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE

SCHOOL HYGIENE

CHAPTER IV

SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE¹

Site and Surroundings.—The choice of site and orientation of the school building being determined, certain details of planting and laying out the school lot remain to be considered before the requirements of the schoolhouse itself are taken up. If anything in the size of the lot or the conformation of the ground prevents ample space from being given to the rear playground, it is much better to set the building as far back as possible, and give up the front space to the children's games. Not only will the available area be thus made the most of, but, if the schoolhouse is judiciously arranged, the playground will be brought on the south side of the building and sheltered from cold winds, while the sun reflected from the walls will add much to its cheerfulness.

The ground should be grassed over with the closest and thickest turf possible, and baseball stations and similar places of excessive wear should be shifted every few weeks, to prevent the sod from being trodden away entirely. Wherever the natural sod is good, it is best to leave it intact, as a thick sod is of very slow growth. Defective places may be patched, during the construction of the schoolhouse, with sods from the site of the building and from the paths.

If new grading makes it necessary to raise the grass from the beginning, all the loam accessible should be spread upon the surface. Two feet in depth of rich loam is not too much;

¹ The greater part of this chapter is taken from one of the bulletins of the National Bureau of Education, prepared by T. M. Clark, an eminent architect of Boston.

the growth of the sod will be much more rapid in such a soil; and the whole should be thickly sown with red-top grass, with a little admixture of white clover. The front space, where such an area is reserved distinct from the playground, may be treated differently by planting with trees, particularly evergreens and flowering shrubs, only taking care that no tree of any kind is allowed to stand at a less distance from the schoolhouse than twice its own natural height when fully grown. The good effect of trees is reversed by allowing them to stand too near a building.

Lighting. — The essential consideration which should determine the orientation of the schoolhouse proper absolutely, without reference to street lines or grades, is the lighting of the several rooms. We know that the sun rises in the east, is at its highest point in the south, and sets in the west; we know also positively the good and bad effects of different kinds and degrees of lighting and varying amounts of sunshine upon the eyesight and health of children; hence we can deduce plain rules for laying down the lines of the rooms which they are to occupy, and these rules cannot be violated in deference to a real or supposed necessity, without detriment to the usefulness of the building.

It is agreed by all authorities that the most comfortable and wholesome light for the eyes is that coming from one side of the room, without interfering crosslights from windows in the opposite side or from front or rear, and it is furthermore desirable that the light should come from a group of windows, or a single one, rather than from a succession of them separated by wide piers, which cast annoying shadows.

For writing or drawing, the light should come from the left, not exactly at the side, but a little in front; then neither the head, the right hand, nor the pen will cast a shadow on the paper. For reading, the light may come from either side, indifferently, but should be a little back, that it may shine brightly on the page. For any purpose, the window must

not be far off, or the light will be too dim, even though it may come from the right quarter.

In arranging the more important schools, containing four or more class rooms on a floor, only two modes of lighting are practicable: one, by windows in two adjacent sides; the other, by windows in one side only.

Of these two alternatives, the latter should always be chosen. The confusion of crosslights at right angles to each other and the shadow of the head thrown forward are injurious to the eyes, and the slight advantage to be gained for ventilation by windows in the adjacent sides of a large room is not sufficient to weigh against the defectiveness of the lighting so obtained.

The openings in the one illuminated side should be numerous and large, otherwise the more distant portions of the room will be too dark; and the seats should be arranged in such a way that the light in each room will fall upon the left side of the pupils.

Under this arrangement, with lofty rooms and large openings, the comfort of the eyes is at its highest point, and it is therefore compulsory in all German schools of every grade, and has become a common requirement in planning the better class of school buildings in this country.

For our climate, however, it may be seriously questioned whether, in small houses of one or two rooms, the value during the hot weather of the cross ventilation obtained by opening windows in two opposite walls should not compensate for the inferior quality of the lighting.

Some French schools have endeavored to meet the difficulty and combine good light with ventilation by piercing two opposite walls with windows and then concealing those on one side by permanent screens, like blinds, which allow the air to pass, but not the light.

This expedient answers for high and well-lighted rooms, but there is a further difficulty in the fact that in our low-studded district and ungraded schools it is impracticable to

admit from a single side sufficient light to supply the needs of the scholars.

The minimum approved proportion of window opening for a schoolroom is set down at one sixth of the floor area, most authorities demanding much more. In one of our average rooms, 30 by 40 feet, the necessary window area would thus be 200 square feet. Unless this amount of glass surface is provided, the pupils in the parts of the room farthest from the windows will suffer from insufficient light, which is far worse for the eyes than any possible crosslights.

Now, a simple calculation will show that, supposing the ceiling to be 12 feet high and the windows to extend from a line 4 feet above the floor to within a foot of the ceiling, to obtain the amount of opening demanded would require a succession of windows, say $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet each in width, occupying the entire length of the longest side of the room, with piers between, only 12 inches wide.

It is plain that such a construction, though not impossible, is very different from anything which has ever been seen in our country schoolhouses; yet nothing short of this would give the remoter parts of the room even a bare sufficiency of light, and not that, if any darkening by shades or blinds were permitted.

From these reasons it follows, we think necessarily, that whatever may be the best practice in large buildings, whose high stories admit the requisite surface of glass without reducing the piers to an impracticable slenderness, and where artificial or forced ventilation keeps the air fresh without effort, small buildings of cheap construction can, as a rule, be neither properly lighted nor efficiently ventilated without windows in two walls, and these walls should be those on the right and left of the pupils as seated.

By this arrangement ample window space can be easily given, with allowance for partial darkening by blinds at times. The light, though less comfortable to the eyes of perhaps half of the pupils than would be that from a single

direction, will be more comfortable to the remaining half, and far more so to all, teachers included, than would be the case with windows in two adjacent walls; while the advantage of being able to change the air of the room in a few moments by opening windows in opposite sides, or by the same means to maintain a current in hot weather, is, in our climate, of very great importance.

Adopting, therefore, the principle of lighting by opposite windows, it is necessary to consider the most advantageous aspect for these windows; in other words, presuming that the openings will be made in the longer side of the parallelogram which constitutes the plan of the main schoolroom, the proper direction of the longer axis of the room is to be determined with reference to the effect of sunshine in the room at different times of the day.

So far as the comfort of the eyes is concerned, the north light is preferable, as it is comparatively unvarying, and through windows so directed there will be no sunshine during school hours, and therefore no need of shades or blinds, which are always to be avoided if possible. But the health of children in other respects suffers very seriously from the deprivation of the sun's direct rays, so that steadiness of light must be sacrificed to the necessity for admitting them. Even the German rules recognize this, and require that while no room shall have windows on two sides, only drawing class rooms shall face the north.

Next to the north aspect, the steadiest light, as well as the greatest amount of sunshine, is derived from one due south; and while a south window receives the sun nearly all day the year round, the angle at which it enters is so great that the annoyance from it in hot weather is infinitely less than from the horizontal rays which stream through an east or west window at certain times. For this reason, a south exposure is both cooler in summer and warmer in winter than an eastern or western one; and while it secures the largest possible aggregate of sunshine, a south window

needs less shading with blinds or curtains than any other except one facing north.

On the whole, therefore, although some authorities hold a different opinion, the writer believes that the main room or rooms in small school buildings will be best placed with the longer axis directed due east and west, and lighted by windows in the north and south sides only.

With windows in the east and west walls, as some advise, the sun's rays will indeed traverse the room from side to side, but only at the times when their purifying and light-giving quality is at its least and their power of annoyance at its highest.

Such a room is unendurable in summer afternoons without much pulling down of shades and closing of shutters — processes as disturbing to the quiet of the school as they are injurious to the eyes of the scholar — while at the same time the summer breeze is shut out together with the sunlight.

In winter a room so lighted is chilled on either side alternately, according as the northwest winds of March or the easterly gales strike upon the exposed surface of glass, making the room difficult to warm unless by using two furnaces — one or the other to be used, according to which side may be the cold one for the time being.

With north and south lighting, all these difficulties vanish. The condition of the room in relation to the furnaces will in winter be always the same, the north side being constantly cold and the south side warm, so that a single stove or furnace placed near the north wall will at all times diffuse its heat uniformly through the room. In summer, the north windows will never need shading and those on the south side only to a small extent. In winter the range would be much greater, though the annoyance would at that season be far less. In any case, the shading of a small fraction of the window surface will cut off all the rays which can possibly shine upon any desk, while a west window can be effectually

shaded only by closing every crevice through which a horizontal beam can pierce.

The advantage in hot weather of being able to have all the apertures on both sides of the room wide open, with fractional shades, if any, on the south windows, can be best appreciated by those who have tried both systems of orientation.

Nor is the sunning of the room by south windows less effectual, but more so, than by east and west windows. The most obvious influence of sunshine upon the atmosphere of a room is to set it in motion, the chemical processes of deoxidation or decomposition being too obscure for our senses; but both chemical and mechanical effects are produced with greater energy by the noonday beams than by the heating, though lifeless, rays of a horizontal sun, and the circulation between the north and south sides of a room lighted from both quarters is the more active and constant by reason of the great dissimilarity in their condition, one being always shaded and cold and the other always warm.

The shape and size of the sashes is an important matter. The height of the room will be generally about 12 feet, and if the windows are carried to within 6 inches of the ceiling the total height of the frame will be $7\frac{1}{2}$ to $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet. So high a sash ought not to be over 3 feet wide, and both parts should be well counterbalanced, so as ~~not~~^{not?} to encourage their frequent opening. A heavy or badly-hung sash will rarely be opened, from the simple physical inability of teacher and children to manage it.

A ring should be screwed into the top of the upper sash, and a pole and hook provided to operate it. The glass should be in rather small lights, for cheapness of repairs, and double thick on all exposed sides. The English double-thick is heavier than the common kind.

Shades and blinds should be avoided as far as possible. Outside blinds are generally condemned by writers on school architecture, as liable to get out of repair and difficult to

manage. Moreover, they require so much wall space, to fold back against, as to restrict the number of windows and prevent the grouping with small piers, which gives the best light.

Inside shutters may be used where brick walls or furred projections give the necessary space for folding them back; or, better still, Venetian blinds can be easily made or obtained, which pull up against the soffit of the frame by means of a cord passing through holes in the ends of each slat, and attached to the lowest one. These are made both of wood and iron. Still better, but more costly, are the rolling shutters, which coil, by means of a spring, into a box either above or below.

✕ The cheapest device of all is the ordinary shade, which should be made of stout holland, never of paper or painted cotton, and strongly and accurately hung. This has the objection of shutting out air in summer, as well as sun; and a modification may be used, consisting of a short curtain, only half the height of the window, and moving up and down by means of the ordinary brass pulleys and endless cords, to which it is secured along the edges by rings and hooks.

This will be quite sufficient to intercept all unwelcome sunshine, and will still leave half the window opening free for admission of air. The securing of each edge of the cord keeps the shades stretched and in good condition indefinitely, and no rollers or springs are required. For the north windows no shade whatever will be necessary.

It is important that the sills of the windows should be as much as 4 feet above the floor. If less than this they cause a glare in the eyes of the pupils sitting near them. The danger which some writers fear that high window sills will develop an irresistible inclination on the part of the pupils to climb up on them, in order to see out, may be counteracted, perhaps, by increased effort to make the school-room itself attractive.

To compensate for the height of the sills above the floor, the window heads should be carried as close to the ceiling as the construction will admit. Four inches is all the distance which need generally be given in frame structures, and even in brick buildings the sash can be carried nearly as high, as will be seen further on. The illumination of the ceiling so obtained is of the greatest value, the light reflected from it being peculiarly soft and grateful to the eyes, while the proper ventilation of the room is greatly assisted by making the windows as high as possible.

Aspect must also be considered in regard to entrances, which, in a word, should always face the south. A south entrance gives a breathing place for the children in rainy or blustering weather, as they approach or leave the building, and protection to the interior from the March northwesterners or easterly rain storms, which will blow in at an outside door exposed to them with such force as to make themselves felt through the whole schoolroom whenever the door is opened; it gives dry and clean approaches to the building after snowstorms, in place of impassable drifts, and—last but not least—shelter for those too punctual scholars who are sure to arrive before the building is open in the morning.

So important has experience shown the southerly aspect for entrances to be, that to this necessity is perhaps due the fashion of east and west lighting for the schoolroom proper. The “classical” style of school planning not being able to conceive of entrances in any other position than in the gable end of a building, a south door involved necessarily east and west windows, and *vice versa*. Now, however, the specter of the Greeks has ceased to reign over our architecture, and whatever ingenuity is shown in contriving south windows as well as doors will be rewarded by the applause of the elders as well as the gratitude of the children.

There may be situations where a south exposure is impracticable for one or both entrances. In such a case,

much may be done by contriving porches, which, although entered from the east or west, or even from the north, can have wide windows toward the south, and angles or screens which may shelter the early arrivals from the cold winds.

Arrangement of the Schoolhouse. — The arrangement of the schoolhouse itself is now to be considered, keeping in view the requirements as to lighting and aspect of main room and entrances, which have already been discussed and accepted as settled for all cases where imperative necessity does not overrule them. But if certain further general rules can be deduced from study of the habits and necessities of teachers and scholars, it does not follow that such rules will be universally applicable. On the contrary, there are few cases where a very considerable amount of ingenuity will not be necessary to adapt the form and arrangement of building acknowledged to be the best in theory to the different exigencies of situation, size, or cost, which must to some extent govern in each particular instance; and it should be one of the recognized duties of school superintendents to see that a due degree of mental energy is expended upon the problem.

It is most unwise to delegate to the builder the task of shaping a model plan to fit a particular position. Not only will he generally lack the knowledge, if not the disposition, requisite for determining the dimensions of the rooms with that close regard to the number of pupils, the mode of seating, the kind and therefore the size of desks, the formation of classes and consequently the width needful for aisles, the best mode of heating and ventilation under the given circumstances, which is necessary to success; but, even if fortified with what he supposes to be ample experience, his knowledge will very often prove to be derived from books or works which, however good in their time, have in the rapid development of modern sanitary and social science long since become obsolete.

Few persons know from actual examples how greatly the

skillful planning of a school building facilitates the work carried on in it; but an idea of the possibilities of good planning may be negatively arrived at by observing the disadvantages of bad or ill considered arrangement, which may be studied in great variety in most of our country schools.

Let any teacher, superintendent, or member of a committee, on visiting a school, notice for an hour or so the continual petty interruptions, annoyances, and distractions caused to pupils and teachers in ordinary schoolrooms by the moving about to stir up fires which have not a proper chimney draught, or to pull down shades for excluding troublesome sunbeams; by the frequent rests, sometimes on the part of teacher, sometimes of scholars, to relieve the eyes from the painful glare of a front light; by the confusion and relaxation of discipline which follow the collision of classes in narrow doorways or of pupils in the tortuous and inconvenient passages among the desks, and the countless other annoyances which follow from the improper position of windows, desks, stoves, and doors; and he will realize how large is the weekly aggregate of time thus wasted.

The remedy for this is thought, the careful thought of some one thoroughly familiar with school business and ready to sacrifice all other considerations to the welfare of the school; of one who can in imagination follow each pupil through his work and play, who can see before him the classes in order, and can sympathize with the trials and understand the duties of teachers and pupils. Such a man should sit in judgment upon every schoolhouse plan, whether modest or pretentious, whether made by an architect or by the apprentices in the builder's shop.

In his criticism he should abandon at once all those preconceived notions of symmetry, proportion, classic elegance, or Gothic aspiration derived from books, or from the vague recollection of a few examples which are apt to influence amateurs much more than architects, and devote himself

solely to determining whether the heights of stories are too great for proper hearing or too small for ventilation; whether the staircases are wide enough and numerous enough for safety, and not too steep for little legs; whether the windows are sufficiently high, and of suitable extent, and so placed that their light will fall where it is wanted; whether the ventilating and warming apparatus is well out of the way of the school operations; and, unless he can trust the architect's knowledge, whether it is judiciously planned in accordance with the latest practice.

The dimensions of the rooms should be tested with reference to the desks to be put in them, and the width of the resulting aisles between the desks calculated to an inch, in order that their sufficiency may be assured, while any superfluity of space may be curtailed.

This most necessary work of preliminary criticism, before plans of this kind are carried into execution, may be performed by any intelligent teacher or school superintendent, with the help of such guides and books of reference as may be procurable.

By such individual thought and criticism only can a thoroughly good mode of school planning be formed in this country, as has been done in England through similar censorship, with the imperative demand that certain requirements shall be fulfilled; and if the following notes are found applicable in suggesting and assisting such criticism, the writer believes that this work will be more serviceable than if he were to devote himself to the collection of a certain number of model plans, which, however interesting in themselves, are seldom of much service, except when interpreted by the light of well understood principles.

Taking up the component portions of the proposed buildings in the order of their importance, the main schoolroom should be considered in a few words. The form of this room would hardly need discussion if it were not that fantastic shapes are from time to time proposed and occa-

sionally adopted. It is sufficient to say that the figure long proved to be the best for hearing and seeing on the part of the pupils, with easy supervision on the part of the teacher, is a parallelogram, the length of which is a quarter or a third greater than the breadth. In the middle of one end is the desk of the teacher, who has his school thus before him, within reach of his voice, and so disposed that he can observe every movement without turning his head or straining his eyes.

For supervision alone a long and narrow room would be most suitable, so that the whole school would be comprehended by the teacher within a comparatively small angle of vision; but sufficient width must generally be provided for drawing out classes, either in front of or behind the desks, and a compromise must be made between these two opposite requirements.

In accordance with the rules of lighting and aspect previously proposed, the room will have its longer axis directed east and west, and will be lighted by windows occupying nearly the whole length of the north and south walls.

The entrances, which must be separate for the two sexes, should be so planned that both boys and girls may be under the eye of the teacher, in entering and leaving the room. They may be in the wall behind him—a very common position—but they are better either in the side or opposite end walls, so that, without turning his head, his glance may follow them through the vestibules until they are out of the building. This plan will prevent the silly tricks which children carry on in the vestibules sheltered from the teacher's observation, to the amusement of their fellows but to the detriment of discipline. The best arrangement will be to put one entrance door in the side wall, near the teacher's end of the room, and the other in the opposite end wall.

The side door may be appropriated to the boys, who will thus be nearer the teacher and more under his control in

entering and departing, and the end door, which will be behind the pupils, to the girls.

The room being lighted alike on both sides, the pupils may sit facing either the east or west, but there are many advantages in arranging them to face the west. By this disposition the girls' entrance is brought on the sunniest and most sheltered part of the building, as it should be, and in interior planning the stove or furnace, which must be at the northwest corner of the room, comes in front of the pupils, where it finds the largest space and where its heat is diffused with the greatest comfort to all.

The best place for the blackboards is the end wall behind the teacher, the whole of which will be available, except what small portion may be occupied by doors to class room or teacher's room. If more space is needed, the opposite end wall may be used.

The piers beside the windows, though often fitted with blackboards, are unsuitable. The strain upon the eyes in trying to decipher marks on boards so placed, in the face of the glare of light from the windows, is very severe, and such positions, if occupied at all, should be left for coarse maps and diagrams on a large scale and in bright colors.

In the simplest cases, the large schoolroom and its separate entrance porches or vestibules for boys and girls, with wardrobes for each and connected outbuildings, will form the whole of the structure.

More important buildings will have in addition a teacher's room and one or more recitation rooms; but these can and should be joined to the main body without interfering with the disposition, aspect, or lighting of either schoolroom or entrances, the requirements for which are the same in houses of all the lower grades.

A good rule for vestibules is that the outside doors shall be placed at an angle with those opening from the vestibules into the schoolroom. This will cut off the direct impulse of the wind and exclude draughts with ten times the effective-

ness of outside and vestibule doors in parallel walls. They should be light and sufficiently spacious to give the crowd which pours out of the schoolroom doors at recess a little breathing space before they are pushed into the open air.

Attached to each vestibule should be a large wardrobe. These may open directly from the schoolroom, and should always do so where there is danger of their being robbed; but the smell of wet clothes in rainy weather, especially in poor neighborhoods, is penetrating and disagreeable, and a better disposition is to open the wardrobes from the vestibules, these being at the same time so arranged that the teacher can observe everything that goes on in either of them. With panels of clear glass in the inner doors, these can be shut without interfering with this supervision, which is useful also for other purposes.

Besides the wardrobes, each vestibule should be furnished with washbowls and roller towels. It is not necessary to have expensive plumbing to enable teachers and children to keep themselves as clean as they desire. All that is needful is a common cistern pump in each vestibule, with a lead or enameled iron suction pipe to the well, and an earthenware or tinned copper basin, or a sink, if preferred, with a waste pipe to a dry well outside. This will cost a trifle—perhaps \$50 in all—if the well is not far away. At 6 per cent interest, this would bring the cost of keeping a school of 50 pupils clean up to 6 cents apiece each year.

A further investment for towels and rollers, with weekly allowance for laundry, is advisable, but not absolutely necessary.

The pumps may be had with a pin hole in the valve, so that the water cannot stand long enough in them to freeze, and traps in the waste pipe may be dispensed with as unnecessary, so that there will be no other part of the apparatus to be injured by frost.

On no account must the waste pipe empty into the privy vault. By such carelessness will not only foul gases be

poured into the vestibules, wardrobes, and schoolroom, but the admixture of water renders the contents of the vault doubly offensive and dangerous.

In towns with public water supply, the arrangement will be a little different; but some means of cleanliness may always be had. If nothing better offers, the rain water of the roof can be collected and used.

In regard to certain other appliances for cleanliness and health — perhaps the most essential of all — much must depend upon circumstances. The distance between the best and the worst is so enormous that the writer can do no less than urge most earnestly that the very best apparatus should be always used where it is possible. At the same time, he considers it his duty not to overlook the very poorest and cheapest contrivances, which must sometimes of necessity be endured.

It is sometimes asserted that a school privy should never be under the same roof as the schoolroom, and certainly it should not open into it, nor should the vault be placed where its contents can by any possibility contaminate the soil beneath the schoolrooms; but with proper construction and ventilation it can be brought without offense, if not under the same roof, at least within reach of sheltered and decent communication, and one improperly built and cared for should not be allowed upon a schoolhouse plot under any circumstances.

The advantages of placing the closets in communication with the schoolroom are numerous. To say nothing of the dangerous exposure in winter to a delicate child in leaving a hot room, and traversing, perhaps, the length of the playground to a miserable shed through which the wind blows freely, or of the no less injurious repressions of the natural functions which the dread of such exposure occasions, the blunting of the natural modesty of children and the opportunity of corrupting themselves and others which is afforded to the degraded ones by the shiftless, indecent, and promis-

cuous arrangement and condition of the ordinary school privies urgently demand that these necessary appliances should receive at least as much care as the other circumstances of school life.

How deeply children may be dragged down by their school associations is well known to experienced teachers and physicians; and even the public is sometimes startled into attention by the revelation of the condition into which such influences, joined to the horrible knowledge derived from the books which certain criminals delight to scatter among the young, may bring to a school. Even young children are liable to have a bias given to their thoughts which they will bitterly regret in later years.

For these reasons, all the delicate precautions with which good architects help the occupants of dwelling houses to conceal from each other any suggestion of the degrading necessities of their common nature are tenfold more necessary in planning for school children, whose minds are far more susceptible to the influence of their material surroundings, while they have not the restraint of intimacy and affection to check prurient curiosity.

In the first place, the conveniences for the two sexes should be absolutely separated, out of sight and out of mind each from the other. They should be well ventilated, a little off the main thoroughfare, but not at the end of a long passageway, nor in any place where one must pass by a window or across a door to reach them.

They should be, however, secluded in the same group as the wardrobes or woodshed, so that a person passing in that direction is not necessarily going to or from them. This seems a small matter, but it is not; it is one of the established rules of planning among architects, and especially in planning for children, whose modesty it is peculiarly necessary to consider. Yet the closets should not be far removed from the observation of the teacher, or even from supervision by the public opinion of the scholars.

As the dark and filthy outhouse, scrawled with obscenity by wandering tramps, induces carelessness in children, if nothing worse, so a light and neatly finished closet, with proper provisions of urinals and water-tight floors, will be an object of pride even among boys, and they will readily coöperate with a teacher in keeping it clean and discountenancing the filthy habits of the rougher class.

But, to remove temptation, all should be light, open, and in a sense public, each latrine to its own sex. There should be conveniences enough for all the children. Dark corners should be avoided, inside as well as outside the building, and such angles as cannot be dispensed with should be overlooked by windows from some frequented place. Even clumps of shrubbery should be so arranged as not to form retreats for careless or dirty boys. This care in arrangement, so that no part of the building or grounds can escape observation, is of great value in assisting discipline, breaking up bad habits among the scholars, and encouraging manliness and modesty.

Having arranged the position of the retiring places with due regard to convenience, unobtrusiveness, cleanliness, and privacy, the kind of apparatus to be employed is next to be decided. Independent of cost, the question whether water closets, earth closets, or common privies should be used depends upon the amount of care which can be given to them.

A good water closet is undoubtedly the best appliance which we have, but it involves an expense in drainage and supply which is seldom allotted to country schools, and the risk of being rendered useless by freezing is considerable, especially with the best closets. Those which are called "hoppers" can be arranged with the trap below ground, out of reach of frost, but unless by good fortune there is a large and constant supply of water these are liable to become serious nuisances. In general, it is well to remember that the stench from an inferior or dilapidated water closet is

more penetrating even than that of a foul privy, and that a privy vault can be disinfected much more easily than a bad drain.

In ordinary cases, the best resource is some form of earth closet, which, when properly cared for, is inodorous and is equally available in all weathers. The form of closet employed should be especially designed so that the scattering of the earth over the matter in the vault may be done by an independent mechanism from the outside. In this way the pulling of a lever or turning a crank once a day will accomplish all the requisite disinfecting, and the weekly visit of an intelligent laborer, who should make the rounds of the schoolhouse to fill up the reservoirs of dry earth and remove the contents of the vault, will be all that is necessary to maintain the sanitary condition of the buildings. Further details will be found in their proper place.

If the town is unwilling or unable to do even so much as this for its children, the common privy vault must be accepted as a necessity. In that case, although it is both practicable and advisable to retain it in close connection with the schoolroom, provision should be made by a short vestibule, ventilated by blind slats in the sides, or some similar arrangement, for intercepting and sweeping away the emanations of the closets before they can enter the rooms. By this precaution, with a small and tight ventilated vault, little or no nuisance can reach the schoolroom.

Water closets and privies are simple in arrangement, but a few suggestions may be useful. They are, in the country, generally made far too large. Two feet and a half is all the width necessary or advisable, and four feet in depth is sufficient. Never, under any circumstances, should there be two seats in the same inclosure.

If a special seat for young children is necessary, it should be in an inclosure by itself; but with seats made rather low, 15 inches from the floor, and the holes not too large, all children of school age will be sufficiently well accommodated.

It is sometimes necessary in rough districts to prevent standing on the seats in the boys' closets. This may be done by a wide board inclined from a little above the back of the seat, forward to a point nearly over the front edge, or by a strong bar 20 to 24 inches above the seat.

The boys should always be provided with urinals, which may consist of a trough of wood or iron, inclined toward the outlet, and the requisite number of board partitions, 18 to 20 inches apart; but a better arrangement, because of its greater privacy, consists in stalls divided by partitions, as before, but each furnished with a separate iron urinal—enameled, if the best and most durable article is desired. Corner urinals are in some respects the best, and a large number may be set in a small space by placing them on opposite sides of a zigzag partition. Whatever kind is used, the lipped pattern should be chosen. This saves the dripping and consequent foulness inevitable with troughs, or even with urinals of the ordinary shape.

The screens should be 6 feet in height or more. In very many delicate and nervous boys nature refuses to perform its usual functions, however great the necessity, in the presence of others or under unaccustomed circumstances, and a decent privacy in the school conveniences is necessary to save such from daily pain and often more serious consequences.

The urinals may discharge into a single pipe, emptying into the vault, and all woodwork above them should be well painted and sanded. The floor under them should be, if possible, of slate, marble, or concrete, with a gutter formed in it, draining into the main waste pipe. In general as little surface as possible should be exposed to defilement, and that little should be non-absorbent, and capable of being washed clean with a few pailfuls of water.

The schoolroom, vestibules, wardrobes, and closets will in some cases constitute the whole of the plan, but most schools will require, in addition, either a woodshed for storage of fuel or a space for cellar stairs, if the basement is used for that

purpose. As a rule, unless furnaces are set in the basement, it is both better and cheaper to store wood, and still more coal, in a shed on the ground level than under the schoolroom floor. Some coal, especially when wet, emits sulphurous vapors in considerable quantity, and any old wood pile furnishes evidence that the fermentation of sap and the decomposition of animals give rise to vapors which are best removed from all possibility of contaminating the schoolroom air. The woodshed may adjoin the boys' vestibule, and by placing it on the northwest corner it will serve to shield the vestibule on that side from the cold winds.

The most desirable position for the stove being in the open space in front of the pupils and at the left of the teacher, and this being also, with the orientation here adopted, by far the most favorable position for warming the room uniformly in cold weather, it will be convenient to place the chimney in the northern part of the west wall near the stove.

For an ordinary stove a flue 8 by 8 inches is large enough, but a chimney of a single flue of that size quickly bends over and finally decays, so that it must be made 8 by 12 or 8 by 16 inches, or, what is much better, a ventilating flue may be built in the same stack. The cost of the stack is not very much increased, and the advantage of having a ventilating flue in such a position, where the draught will be quickened by the heat of the adjoining smoke flue, is considerable. Besides, the solidity as well as the external appearance of the chimney is greatly improved by increasing its size.

The ventilating flue, if smooth inside, must be at least 20 by 20 inches; this is the smallest permissible sectional area of a warmed shaft, straight and smooth and of considerable height, for winter ventilation of a schoolroom occupied by forty-eight pupils.

If a smaller flue is used, additional wooden shafts will have to be provided in other parts of the room to obtain proper movement of the air, and as the motion of the air in pipes diminishes much more rapidly than their sectional area,

the cost of the wooden trunks will be found greater than that of the brickwork saved, and the effect much less.

A consideration which should not be lost sight of in planning small schools is the possibility that it may become desirable to add one, two, or more recitation or class rooms and a teacher's room or library, and an arrangement of ground plan and elevations which will permit this to be done with the least alteration of the portion previously built will be very generally useful.

In planning buildings of this class it is always necessary to keep in mind the requirements which are peculiar to the business of a small school, and to recognize the difference between them and the large structures with four rooms on a floor, where, for instance, it is the rule to place the axes of the building diagonally with the cardinal points, in order to secure sunshine in all the rooms, an object which is much better attained in the one or two roomed structure by placing it square with the cardinal points.

The dimensions and, to some extent, the shape of the rooms will depend upon the seating. The utmost number of pupils which should be allowed to one teacher is fixed by the best authorities at 48, and each teacher should have a separate room; but there are certain advantages in ungraded schools in having the schoolroom large enough to accommodate a greater number.

In country districts the attendance varies in character according to the season. In summer the larger children are occupied at home and the school is filled with small ones, while in winter the older boys and girls have leisure to attend but the inclemency of the weather keeps the little ones away; so that, although the average attendance may not be over 48 scholars, there should nevertheless be an extra provision of small desks for summer and of large ones for winter, increasing the number to about 60 places in all. Otherwise, in the cold season, stout children must be crammed into the infants' desks, and during the rest of the year some of the little

ones will have to be seated at desks too large for them, with serious risk in both cases of causing malformation in the young and tender bodies.

The additional air space gained is also of value, and, in a rapidly growing neighborhood, such a room may, in case of necessity, be temporarily utilized to its full capacity by the employment of a second teacher and the addition of recitation or teachers' rooms, if they do not already exist.

The exact dimensions of the main room will furthermore be dependent on the kind of desks used. It should be unnecessary to say that the proper way to plan a building of this sort is to determine the number and size of desks and the width of aisles and platform first of all, then to construct the walls to inclose just the space desired and no more; not, as sometimes occurs, to fix upon some haphazard dimensions for the room, and when it is ready cram the desks in somehow, the result being that the room presents in one place large useless spaces, and, in another, aisles so narrow that the children can only squeeze through them sideways.

Taking things as they are, not as they perhaps ought to be, the majority of ungraded schools are likely to use double desks, and the plan will be first laid out for such, leaving till later the arrangement to suit the single desk seating.

The dimensions of double desks vary according to the maker, and the utmost economy of floor space will be secured by determining upon the kind to be used before commencing the construction of the building.

The folding seat desks, which are desirable, especially for young children (because they allow the pupils to stand upright in their places, turn the seats back, and in that position take part in various calisthenic or other exercises), occupy a little more room from front to rear than the old kind, but are made somewhat shorter, the average length being 40 inches for the double seat, and the floor space from back to back 30 inches. The aisles between the rows of double desks should be two feet wide.

The teacher's platform, or a space for the desk if a platform is not used, will be 5 feet wide, and 3 feet, at least, must intervene between the front of the platform and the front row of desks. Three and a half, or, better, four feet should be allowed between the rear seats and the wall, and aisles next the side walls are necessary, $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide if blackboards are to be placed there, or 3 feet if they are dispensed with.

There should not be more than four rows of double desks. The advantage of shortening the schoolroom by increasing the width is more than counterbalanced by the annoyance to the teacher of constantly turning the head in trying to take in a wide angle of vision.

Three rows of desks would give a room of better form still for seeing, hearing, and economical construction, but the width of such a room, amounting to 20 feet only inside the finished walls, would not be sufficient to allow the drawing out of large classes in front or rear of the desks. With four rows, therefore, as a standard, the desks, being 40 inches long, will require 13 feet 4 inches; three 2-foot aisles between them will add 6 feet; and the two side aisles, each $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, 7 more; making the total width of the room, inside the finished walls, 26 feet 4 inches.

For the depth, the teacher's platform will take 5 feet; the front aisle, 3 more; eight desks, at $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet each, will add 20 feet; and the rear aisle, which must be 4 feet if there is any possibility of adding recitation rooms on that end, brings the total to 32 feet, and gives seating capacity for 64 pupils of all ages.

If it is decided to use single desks, which are rapidly superseding double ones in the more intelligent communities, the dimensions of the room will with advantage and economy be somewhat different. The usual width for aisles between single desks is about 18 inches; six rows of desks, therefore, at two feet each, with five aisles, at $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet, will take $19\frac{1}{2}$ feet; two side aisles will, as before, add 7 feet, making

26½ feet. To accommodate 60 pupils, there will be ten desks in each row, at 2½ feet of floor space for each, which, with 8 feet in front and 4 in rear, gives 37 feet for the depth of the room.

The height of the ceiling should not be less than 12 or more than 14 feet. Thirteen feet is quite sufficient for any schoolroom; and although the volume of air contained in a lofty room is larger, a comparatively low one is more easily ventilated by flues and the air more quickly changed by opening the windows, and the acoustic quality of a room so nearly square as a schoolroom must be deteriorates with great rapidity as the height of the ceiling passes beyond 12 feet.

Lower posts still would be admissible in small rooms for 24 to 40 pupils, if the ceiling were carried up with the roof by plastering on the rafters and collar beams, but collar beams are hardly practicable in roofs of 25 feet span.

The window sills will be 4 feet above the floor, and the heads should extend close up to the plate, which will allow about 5 inches for architrave.

A wainscoting should be carried around the room, or, at least, across the blackboard ends. Under the blackboards it should be 2 feet 4 inches high. This will be high enough to protect the dresses of the children from the chalk, and will not bring the blackboards too high for convenient use. Usually the cap of the wainscot is formed of a gutter-shaped molding to catch the chalk dust and hold crayons; but an ingenious carpenter can easily make a suitable cap by beveling a square piece of wood inwards.

The blackboards should extend 4½ to 5 feet above the wainscot, bringing the top edge 6¾ to 7 feet above the floor. One large one should occupy the whole extent of the wall behind the teacher's platform, and a similar one the opposite end wall, while smaller ones or maps may be placed beside the groups of windows. Certain simple diagrams, showing graphically the areas of different countries and

their productions, have been made, which will be very suitable for such places. A small molding or batten may run along the top of the blackboard as a frame.

The teacher's platform may be from 6 to 8 feet long and about 8 inches high. Some teachers prefer to dispense with it altogether, thinking that they can make their work more effective by moving about continually on a level with their scholars instead of overlooking them quietly; but such cases are exceptional.

The stove, if the room is to be warmed in that way, should stand in the vacant northwest corner of the room; and, if furnace heat is employed, the furnace should stand nearly under the same corner, and registers should be placed in each angle. In this way the delivery of hot air will be equal at each register; whereas, if the furnace were set in the center of the basement, the delivery in cold weather would be mostly on the south side of the house, the greater weight of air in the northern half of the room, chilled by the impact of the cold wind, being sufficient to determine the current away from that side.

The recitation rooms may be 10 by 15 feet, or even smaller. Their furnishing will consist of benches or specially designed seats around the wall, and a small desk and a chair for the teacher. Blackboards should line the walls.

For a teacher's room, almost anything, even a closet, is better than no such room at all. Six feet by ten is large enough to be of great use. Book shelves, hooks for hanging clothes, or, better, a small press, and a few cupboards, with two chairs and a small table, complete its furnishing. Neither teacher's room nor recitation rooms need be so high studded as the schoolroom.

Wardrobes may be 12 inches deep, if there is wall space enough; if not, by making them 18 inches deep hooks may be put on the inside of the doors, and room thus economized. The hooks should be triple, of malleable or wrought iron, if the cost is not too great, and screwed to strips in two rows,

one row being put 6 feet or so from the floor for the large scholars, and the other not over 4 or $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet for the younger ones. The hooks should be 8 inches apart in each row, and those in one row should be vertically over the middle of the space between those in the other. Ten feet in length with double strips will give 30 hooks.

Each hook should be numbered and one allotted to each child. Six inches over the top row of hooks should be a shelf, and the remaining space to the ceiling may be occupied with additional shelving.

For overshoes, the lower part of the wardrobe is, in the better schools, occupied with ranges of pigeonholes 4 or 5 inches square. Five inches square, or 4 inches by 6, is not too much in country districts at the north, where rubber boots need to be accommodated, and, if the case is made of half-inch stock, a wardrobe 10 feet long will give room for 30 boxes, numbered like the hooks, in two rows, with a cupboard in addition where lunch pails may be stowed away. A little ingenuity only is needed to secure the requisite accommodation in very limited spaces.

The whole should be shut in by strong doors, which may fasten with a slip bolt, or, if preferred, by a lock, the key of which will be retained by the teacher during school hours. Holes bored in walls and doors will give ventilation. If it is possible to turn a current of warm air from the furnace in among the clothes to dry them in wet weather the health of the children will be thereby promoted.

A few details of general planning may be best inserted here, and will serve to close the subject of arrangement.

All the doors from the interior of the schoolroom to the exterior air should open outward. This precaution, which the law makes compulsory in city schoolhouses, should not be neglected in the smallest buildings. It is necessary, in consequence of this arrangement, to have a landing at the top of the outside steps at least 4 feet wide, so that a child standing on the top step when the door is suddenly thrown

open from the inside may have room to draw back without falling down the steps.

Double doors are often useful in large schools, but, if used, should be not less than 5 feet in width. Other doors may be 3 feet wide, and, in general, 6 feet 8 inches to 7 feet is sufficient height. It is a common mistake to have doors too high. If ventilation is provided for independently of them, as it always should be, the larger they are the greater will be the volume of cold air admitted when they are opened and the more danger there will be that they will warp and admit dangerous draughts even when closed. Fanlights over them, however, are useful in warm weather.

Stairs and steps of all kinds should be very low and easy for children's use. Five inches in height are enough for each riser, and outside steps may have treads 12 inches wide with advantage.

Arrangements in City Schools.—Mr. Clark's foregoing statement of principles of school architecture relates specifically to the smaller schools of country districts, and he has made a careful study of their requirements. The same principles apply generally, however, to city schools as well.

In cities there has been too little attention paid to the matter of school grounds. Unless these are purchased early in a rapidly growing city, it will soon be found that the cost of the ground is an obstacle to the purchase of a campus of generous dimensions. This fact should be carefully considered by school boards, who should have an eye to the future needs of the schools.

"For aspect," says Mr. Clark, "it is hardly necessary to say that a gentle inclination of the ground toward the south is especially desirable; the charm of land so situated is well fixed in the minds of most persons. Next to this, the playground may slope east or west; not north, if it can be avoided. After these considerations have been weighed, if the schoolhouse plot still offers a choice of several sites, all

equally well fulfilling the requirements we have noted, the further selection between the different situations may be allowed to depend upon their relative position with regard to the street.

“While no point of healthfulness or convenience for the pupils should be sacrificed for the sake of pleasing the eyes of the loiterers in the streets, it is generally found impossible to keep a well-used playground as neat and trim as a lawn, and for this reason it will be better with small buildings, other things being equal, to set the schoolhouse between the street and the center of the plot, reserving the portion behind it for playgrounds, while the smaller space in front may be ornamented with flowers and kept neat and attractive. The entrances should be so placed that, without altering the aspect of the schoolroom itself, both of them may be visible from the street. Otherwise than this, the position of the building and the direction of the street have no necessary relation to each other.”

Except in the very large and crowded cities, the vast schoolhouses which were the pride of an earlier decade are going out of fashion. Generally, even in large cities, a building of eight schoolrooms (arranged on two floors) with a principal's office and the usual adjuncts of smaller apartments, is large enough. A building of this size may be made almost ideal in its proportions and appointments.

Where a new school building is to be constructed, it is of the highest importance that the services of a competent architect be secured, in order that the structure may possess a permanent value. There is no economy in erecting old-styled structures wanting in modern appliances and conveniences. The best is really the cheapest, and an architect who has made the subject his special study will know what is best for the purpose.

An eight-room school building of modern design is generally rectangular in form, with a straight hall running through the center, into which open two schoolrooms on each side.

The stairs ascend midway in the hall. The upper hall is nearly square. A piano placed in the center of the upper hall will be advantageously located for supplying marching music, as the pupils pass in and out of the rooms.

Halls with turns and corners, dark halls, halls made to do service as cloakrooms, narrow and crowded halls, noisy halls, dirty halls, inconvenient halls, have had their day. Broad, light, straight, clean, and pleasant halls are now required. The doors should be made to swing outward, as well as inward, to avoid the danger of a crowd shut in by a panic in case of danger.

From the halls the principal should be able to view the rooms at all times. There should be sash doors opening into the schoolrooms. Between the schoolrooms on either side should be commodious cloakrooms for girls and boys, respectively. A separate closet or wardrobe for the use of the teacher should be provided, opening from the schoolroom. In the cloakrooms should be the chimney "shoulders," which would otherwise mar the beauty of the schoolrooms.

The upper hall need not extend through the building. The ends may be cut off by partitions (constructed largely of glass, to permit the passage of light from without). The chambers thus formed should be suitably furnished for the private use of teachers, for reading, study, or consultation at times of intermission. Often children become ill in school, and require a quiet, retired room for immediate use. Accidents occur, and home care and appliances are instantly needed. For such cases — always liable to occur, and without warning — the wise school board and the teacher should prepare.

In addition to the cloakrooms, there should be provided, on the lower floor, apartments for toilet use by the boys and girls, respectively. There should be, at least, places for bathing the faces and hands, and supplied with mirrors and other articles of toilet use.

The principal's office, on the lower floor, should be generously supplied with storage closets of various kinds, book-cases, cabinets for apparatus, etc. It is better to have these made permanently in the building than to have them in the form of heavy, clumsy articles of furniture.

The furnace for steam heat should always be contained in a small building separate from the main edifice, and *never in the basement*. What parent desires his child to be seated over a hot boiler, and liable to injury from an explosion, if it should occur?

In every item of the construction, finishing, and furnishing of the building, thoughtful care should be exercised. Before each of the outer doorways should be a scraper, made of narrow, thin boards turned on edge, separated by small blocks of wood, and strung upon horizontal iron rods, passing through auger holes. This should be so placed that it can be easily removed, so as to recover any article that may be dropped between the boards, or to clean away the scrapings of dirt from the shoes of the person using it.

The clock shelves should be so placed that the time can be seen readily from the hall, and compared with that of the principal's watch or with a regulator in the hall.

Teachers and school officers should make use of opportunities which may occur for visiting the schoolhouses of different cities and towns—especially the newer buildings—and should observe carefully the details of their construction and arrangement. It should be borne in mind that nothing is too small for consideration which has a bearing upon the convenience and comfort of so many people as make use of a school building.

Everything, from the adjustment of the smallest cabinet latch to the arrangement of the largest rooms, is worthy of intelligent consideration. Only by constant observation and comparison of buildings in little things, by the teachers throughout the country, can we expect to achieve the highest success in the development of school architecture.

No false modesty should deter the teacher from considering in detail the plans and furnishings of toilet and retiring rooms for the children. Much better would it have been had these been the subjects of more intelligent consideration and discussion in years gone by. In the estimate of a school by a practical educator many things which teachers sometimes note but little, if at all, often enter very largely into the judgment of the observer.

There are many old schoolhouses now in use which violate in their construction nearly all the canons of modern school architecture. Many of these old schoolhouses will stand for years to come. It is often the case that they can be greatly improved by inexpensive alterations — by changes in certain windows and doors, by the introduction of appliances for heating, ventilation, etc.

Sometimes a little artistic effect produced upon the exterior will greatly improve the appearance of an old building. Unsightly, weather-beaten cupolas can be made to assume more tasteful forms, or can be removed altogether. Old brick walls can be made to appear almost handsome, if painted a rich dark red color, with narrow pencilings of black.

The older the building, the greater is its need for an annual cleansing and renovation throughout. This is as necessary as the periodic house cleaning in a home. Let the teacher and the school officer, acting in concert, evolve intelligent plans for the expenditure of the available funds in securing for the children the benefits of schoolhouses intelligently planned, generously furnished, and kept always in good repair.

CHAPTER V

SCHOOL HYGIENE

Ventilation and Heating. — All who have read the old-time school novel of *Locke Amsden* will recall its forcible delineation of the unventilated schoolroom, and the almost fatal effects of foul air upon the schoolmaster's pupils.

In a later novel of graded school life, *Roderick Hume*, there is an amusing account of the principal's attempt to elucidate the subject of ventilation upon the occasion of a public gathering, and of an error from which he was rescued by the timely assistance of one of the teachers. This incident of Bardeen's clever story is related as follows:

"To enforce this last topic, he undertook to show them how soon the audience in the schoolroom would die if the ingress of fresh air were suddenly cut off. He had prepared the measurement of the room and the amount of air breathed per hour by each individual; so he put these figures upon the board, and proceeded to calculate how long it would take to convert all the oxygen present into carbonic acid. With customary self-reliance he had omitted the precaution to work the problem out beforehand, and he could not see why it was that, instead of an hour or two, it would take weeks to approximately exhaust the oxygen. He began to flounder, the people present to giggle, and the scholars to wonder what could be the trouble. Just then Miss Lowe slipped along the desk, under his eye, a piece of paper on which was written:

Air 1 per cent CO_2 will not support life.

"No one else had seen the motion, but Roderick caught the hint as a drowning man clutches at a straw.

"‘I see that you smile,’ he said, ‘and well you may. It is by this sort of reasoning that builders deceive themselves and murder their occupants. If it were true, as I have assumed, that air can be breathed until all the oxygen is converted into carbonic acid, the danger of ill ventilation would be comparatively small. But what is the fact? One half per cent of carbonic acid produces headache, 1 per cent faintness, $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent numbness, and 2 per cent death. These are the figures for you and for your children to remember, and I implore you never to reason that air can be breathed over and over till all its oxygen is exhausted.’

"The people remarked, as they left the schoolroom, that Roderick was an orator as well as a scholar. By no other way than by pretending for the moment to be himself misled could he so forcibly have impressed upon them the minute proportion of carbonic acid which makes the air deadly."

So much has been written concerning the necessity for adequate ventilation of schoolrooms, that it is unnecessary here to argue the case.

"For schoolrooms," says Dr. C. Gilman Currier, in his recent work on *Practical Hygiene*, "the lowest standard amount of fresh air to be supplied every hour for each pupil is set at 1800 feet. This is at the rate of 30 cubic feet per minute. Some schools receive twice this amount of fresh air for each scholar. A number of schools have 45 cubic feet a minute allowed for every child that the room can accommodate. Unfortunately, very many schools are exceedingly deficient in this respect. Where the pupils are not children, 45 cubic feet per minute ought to be the lowest amount supplied for each individual."

It must be remembered that children are far more susceptible than adults to injury from atmospheric poisons; and that such injury often acts slowly and almost imperceptibly upon the system, its cumulative effects being exhibited after

a considerable period of time, and when it is too late to repair the harm that has been done to their systems.

Among the appliances of the present time to secure the proper ventilation of schoolrooms are improved systems of heating, by means of which warm, fresh air is admitted to the schoolroom, and shafts for carrying off the impure air. However beneficial these appliances may be, they must not be relied upon exclusively.

"Nothing," says T. M. Clark, "can take the place of aeration by means of open windows. Artificial ventilation, though required for changing the air when the windows are necessarily closed, is insufficient, even under the best of circumstances, unless the room is from time to time thoroughly refreshed and purified by the sweep of the free winds through all its windows widely opened.

"Such an atmospheric washing should be secured three or four times daily in all weathers; at recess, particularly, it should be insisted on, banishing teachers and pupils from the room meanwhile, if necessary. They will more than make up in the brightness of the remaining hours for the time they must lose. Immediately after school, morning and afternoon, the process should be repeated for a longer time; and just before school, also, if the room can be warmed again quickly enough.

"No fixed transom lights or immovable arched heads should be permitted to exist over the windows, subtracting from the most useful portion of the opening. The large, heavy sashes common in the more pretentious buildings should be rehung with rawhide cord or copper chain, if necessary, and pulleys with friction rollers, balanced so as to move with a touch; while in new buildings the size and weight of the sashes should be carefully kept down, no sash being over 3 feet wide or $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches thick. Eyes must be fixed to the upper sashes, and a pole and hook furnished to handle them with, or, still better, cords fastened to each sash hanging within easy reach, and pulleys to raise or lower them at

will; and the window frames must be perfectly made, with cherry beads, and looked after from time to time to see that all is in working order.

"Besides the general airings in which all the windows are thrown wide open, it is possible and very desirable during three fourths of the year to keep some of them partly open. If they extend to the ceiling, the upper part, at least, of the south windows, in rooms properly supplied with other fresh air inlets, may be pretty widely opened in the coldest weather without causing a noticeable draught. Such openings, if on the leeward side, often interfere with the action of extraction shafts, by drawing to themselves the current of escaping air; but this is of no importance in the buildings we are considering.

"There are times, however, when windows cannot be opened, and means must be provided for insuring the withdrawal of the respired air from the room in some other way." Concerning the use of air shafts for ventilating schoolrooms this architectural critic comments upon a very common misunderstanding of their powers and properties:

"Nothing is more common or more absurd," says he, "than to see rough ventilation flues, 4 by 8 inches, built in walls without any provision for heating them, under the supposition that they will 'draw'; or to see tiny pipes, from the foulest places, introduced into chimneys which are cold half the time, in the expectation that the 'forced draught,' which is imagined to exist there, will suck up and carry off deleterious vapor as fast as a square yard of filth can generate it.

"All talk of 'forced ventilation' by means of a shaft without fans or steam jets is misleading. The action of every such shaft or chimney, warmed or not, is precisely analogous to the movement of two boys balanced on a see-saw. If their weight is equal, neither moves; if one is slightly heavier, he descends and the other ascends, but his motion would not be fairly described by saying that he was 'forced into the air.'

“So with ventilating shafts; the column of air in them is balanced against a column of the same size and height outside of them. If the outer air is cold and that in the shaft warm, either from artificial heat or by communicating with a warm room, the latter column will be slightly lighter, because, being expanded, a given volume contains less weight. This difference of weight, if there is not too much friction in the chimney or elsewhere to be overcome, will incline the balance, and the air in the chimney will rise, cold air descending to take its place. The actual difference of weight between the column of air in a chimney 12 inches square and 30 feet high at a temperature of 100° F. and an equivalent volume at 32° F. would be 5 ounces; and this, deducting the friction of both the ascending and descending currents, will be the measure of the ascensive force of the air in the shaft.

“Without artificial heat, the ascensive power is much less—infinitesimal, often; and in summer the current in a chimney is at least half the time reversed, the evaporation of the hygrometric dampness of the masonry cooling the air within it below the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere.

“This force, feeble though it be, is all we have to depend upon, and it need hardly be said that all obstructions to its action must be avoided. The common cause of defective action is insufficient fresh air supply. The movement of the balance depends wholly on the freedom of action of both its sides, and the heated column has no force to spare for sucking in cold air through inadequate openings to supply the place which it leaves; still less has it the power of going off by itself, leaving a vacuum behind; unless the cold air is ready in equal measure to supply its place, the warmer column will wait for it—in other words, stagnate—and there will be no draught. This is the condition of most existing ventilation flues nine tenths of the year, as is easily shown by holding a light handkerchief before them.

"*Vice versa*, if fresh air is to be introduced into a room, provision must be made for the escape of foul air. The experiment of attempting to blow into the mouth of a bottle will impress this fact upon the mind, and will show why it is that many rooms supplied with hot air from furnaces cannot be warmed until a window or other outlet is opened, allowing the pent-up atmosphere to escape and the fresh supply to enter in its place. In order, then, that there may be a flow of air through the room, not only must the withdrawing shaft be large, straight, and smooth, that the inevitable friction of the air upon its walls may not materially obstruct the outward flow, but the inlet openings must be also ample and unobstructed, any hindrance to the inward flow being equally a check to the outward current.

"To use a homely illustration, the room to be ventilated may be imagined to be traversed by the lower end of a huge atmospheric roller towel. It makes no difference whether we pull one side down or the other side up to secure a movement; but if the towel is obstructed in any part of its course the whole is brought to a standstill. Recollecting also that to pull down a common roller towel actually takes more power than the whole force ordinarily available for moving the entire atmosphere of a large room, the total ascensive power of the usual ventilating shaft seldom exceeding one or two ounces, the imperative necessity for avoiding friction will be evident.

"The principal means to this end is the enlargement of the shafts, the friction increasing only directly as the perimeter, while the capacity increases as its square. For this reason, a round shaft two feet in diameter will carry off about as much air as six shafts each one foot in diameter, and in square pipes the difference is still greater. Besides being large, the shaft must be straight, an elbow constituting a very serious obstruction; and it must be round or square, and as smooth as possible, to lessen the friction against its walls."

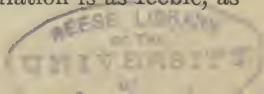
The difficulties of ventilating schoolrooms are enhanced when they are overcrowded. It is said by high authority that the smallest room space to be allotted to an adult in an ordinary room where there are not exceptional provisions to secure the ventilation should be not less than half the 1800 cubic feet of air needed every hour. That is to say, an adult person requires 900 cubic feet of room space.

The smallest schoolroom space provided for each child, we are told, ought to be 250 cubic feet, even where there is an excellent system of ventilation. Electric fans are sometimes employed to force pure air into school buildings. As yet they have not come into very general use, because of the expense and care required to maintain them.

The normal temperature of the schoolroom is generally stated to be about 70° F. It is better that the temperature fall slightly below this than slightly above. Temperatures between 65° and 68° are recommended by the highest authorities. It is not easy to secure an even ventilation throughout the schoolroom. Where stoves are used, a large room should contain two of medium size rather than one very large stove. There should be provided inlets for the admission of fresh air where the stoves are located. The stove should be provided with a screen, or "jacket," to insure the distribution of the air that has been warmed and the warming of the fresh air as it enters the room.

On the subject of furnace heat, Mr. T. M. Clark makes the following suggestions:

"It is much disputed whether furnace registers should be in walls or floor, or, if in the wall, at what height. For large buildings with strong ventilation the best position seems to be in the wall, 6 feet or so above the floor. Then the current warms to some extent the lower strata of the atmosphere of the room, without blowing directly upon any one, and the tendency of the hot air to collect at the ceiling is counteracted by the draught toward the lower register of the ventilating shaft. Where the ventilation is as feeble, as



it will generally be without fans or special sources of heat in the shaft, this tendency of the hot current to rise out of reach cannot be overcome; and although the fresh warm air, like an inverted lake filling up from below, finally reaches the occupants of the room, much of its heat is wasted in warming the ceiling. So that for such cases, which include most small buildings, the best position for registers will be either low in the wall, and directed so that the strong horizontal current from them will not annoy any one, or in the floor, where the natural disposition of the air to rise is counteracted by its clinging to the floor, along which it travels horizontally a considerable distance before leaving it to ascend to the upper regions. Floor registers are liable to gather dust; they must be kept clean.

“An inconvenient breeze from a register, either hot or cold, may be lessened without diminishing the supply of air, by widening the box or pipe in trumpet shape, with the mouth toward the exit, and putting on a larger register plate. Wire gauze either over or under the register will also do much to diffuse the current gently.

“Furnaces should be set under the northwest corner of the building, and registers may be placed in the four angles; the greater length of pipe needed to reach the southern registers, and the consequent obstruction by friction, will be compensated for by the natural circulation of the air in the room, upward on the sunny side and downward on the cold side, so that the delivery will be uniform at all the registers, which it will not be if the furnace is centrally placed. Stoves, also, heat more equally if set in the coldest corner.

“Registers and the so-called ventilating stoves should not be situated so near the opening of the ventilating shaft that the air from them will be drawn into the shaft as fast as delivered. The best position is at the same end of the room as the shaft, but at one side. Then, the lower inlet only of the shaft being open, the upward tendency of the warm, fresh air from the heater will carry it up out of reach before

it can be drawn laterally far enough to enter the shaft. It will then move along the ceiling to the further end of the room, descend to the floor by cooling, and will be drawn back into the ventilator only after a circulation through the room more extended and thorough than could be attained with any other relative position of outlet and inlet.

"A serious difficulty is often experienced, both with basement furnaces and ventilating stoves, through the action of the wind on the exterior opening of the cold air box or other fresh air supply. It is customary to direct these toward the north or northwest, and the result is, that with a high wind from that quarter the air is driven through the air chamber of the furnace and up through the registers much faster than it can be warmed.

"The usual remedy is to close the damper in the air box, so that the sectional area of the inward current shall be diminished in proportion to its increased velocity. If the air box were tight and the wind steady, this would be correct; but in practice, the wind comes in puffs, to guard against which the damper is too much closed, and, the normal supply of air being thus curtailed, the furnace, to make up the deficiency, draws from the cellar, through the cracks and pores of the air chamber and box, such air as it can find.

"If, on the contrary, the sheltered side of the building is chosen for taking in fresh air supply, a strong wind from the opposite quarter will create a vacuum on the lee side of the house strong enough to reverse the natural current, and will draw air out of the building, through the registers and air chamber of the furnace, the warm air issuing at the orifice where the cold should go in. This is not a rare occurrence, and cannot be remedied without some trouble.

"To obviate both these difficulties and insure a steady and sufficient supply to the stove or furnace at all times, it is only necessary to carry the cold air box through the building, with orifices at each end; the furnace is then supplied by means of a short pipe, drawing from the side of

the main box at right angles with it. The wind may then blow through the main box at will, without disturbing the furnace, which takes from the stream just what it needs and no more. Where several registers are to be supplied with cold fresh air for mixing with warm, a similar large main box, tapped at right angles by the minor pipes, forms much the best arrangement.

“If the force of the wind still makes itself felt in the rooms, a further check may be found in a screen made of two thicknesses of wire gauze, with wool loosely picked and spread between them. Independent of its use for checking the force of the current, this ‘air filter’ is valuable for straining out dust and soot where the fresh air supply is unavoidably taken from a street or other dusty place.”

The system of steam heating is growing in popularity. It has the advantage of superior manageability; for while it is necessary that the furnace be in the lower part of the house, in order that the hot air may rise through the building, the source of the steam heat may be in any part of the building, or in a separate structure built for the purpose—the latter being by far the better arrangement.

While the furnace system supplies not only heat, but also ventilation, the hot pipes of the steam-heating apparatus supply heat only, leaving the supply of fresh air to be secured by other means. Steam can be carried to a long distance, and it is unnecessary that the intervening space through which it passes shall be heated to any considerable extent.

The form of steam heat which is generally preferred is that of low pressure—four or five pounds to the square inch. The circuit is generally made with two pipes—a larger one for the passage of the steam, and a smaller one for the return of the condensed vapor and the water. Radiators are used, in such number as may be required, each constituting a smaller circuit of its own, connected with the main pipes. The radiators have generally a rough exterior as such surfaces radiate heat more rapidly.

The warming of the room is effected by the condensation of the steam, for in this there is much heat given off. In the process of condensation there is a rarefaction of the air in the radiators; and with the best of appliances for supplying air to equalize the pressure, there is often a disagreeable noise as a result of the partial vacuum thus produced.

Unless efficient and adequate means be provided for the admission of fresh air and the drawing off of the vitiated air of the schoolroom, steam heating is not to be commended. It does not add to the quantity of fresh air in the room, nor does it remove any of the foul air. It produces but a slight current or movement of air. In this respect it is very different from the system of furnace heat, which throws into a chamber a constant current of warm, fresh air; it is also very different from the system of heating by means of stoves of whatever description—for these cause a draught which carries away much of the foul air.

However, there is no reason why the system of steam heating should not be rendered entirely satisfactory by making ample provision for the ventilation of the rooms—as is often done where this system is in use.

By systems of indirect steam heating (as they are called) the advantages of furnace heat and of steam heat may be combined. The fresh air may be admitted in the basement, and, passing through a coil of steam pipes, may be distributed through the buildings, as in the case of an ordinary furnace; or, fresh air may be admitted into the various rooms through the outer walls, in such a way as to pass through the radiators and become heated in its passage.

The system of hot water heating has been successfully applied in many schools. It is based upon the principle that hot water will rise and cold water will fall in a complete circuit of water pipes, and that there will be a continuous current when the heat is applied to a portion of the circuit. The water rises in the ascending pipes as it becomes warm; and, as it cools, it descends with the descent of the pipes.

Since water employed for heating purposes is kept at a temperature much lower than that of steam, radiators larger than those of the steam-heating system are employed in its use. The tank which supplies the water is elevated to a point as high as the radiators in the upper rooms, and is connected with the circuit of pipes in such a way as to permit the free flow of the water. Since there are no valves in the tank, no difficulty is experienced from the expansion and contraction of the water in the pipes as it becomes hotter, and then colder. The system of hot water heating, like that of steam heating, does not provide for currents of fresh air, nor for the withdrawal of vitiated air of the schoolroom, and these must be provided for, in addition.

In comparing the various systems of heating schoolrooms, Dr. Currier says as follows :

“It may be stated that hot-air furnaces of the best quality (properly put up), if never overheated and always carefully supplied with fresh air from a pure source, give the best results in heating an ordinary house and, at the same time, ventilating it.

“In very large houses, that are much exposed to cold weather, a hot-water system as an auxiliary is excellent for supplying equable, extra warmth by means of radiators used on the lower floor and on the bleakest side of the house.

“For warming larger buildings, such as, for instance, schoolhouses, a good furnace arrangement can be both economical and very satisfactory. This is notably the case with medium-sized buildings. For the largest structures, and especially when they are not compact, steam heating by the *indirect* system is the most satisfactory. It is usually more expensive than the hot-air furnace.

“Exhaust flues for ventilating—that is, for drawing out the bad air—are a very desirable addition to all buildings. With heating, ventilation should be combined.

“As regards the *comparative cost* of steam and hot water for warming, it may be said that steam usually costs more

to operate. Some recent careful observations made at the Cornell Agricultural Station (Bulletin 41, August, 1892) showed that where there were many bends in the pipes and long levels, steam was considerably cheaper than water, regardless of the styles of heaters. Others have reached similar conclusions. In Massachusetts and elsewhere, however, hot water heating has been found to be cheaper than the use of steam, when once the pipes and radiators were set. This is in conformity with what general theoretical conclusions allow one to suppose. To determine which is the better method for heating, one must carefully consider the situation, as hot water can be a more costly means of heating than steam.

“Under the most favorable conditions for hot water heating, it appears slightly less expensive than heating by hot air or steam, when once the very costly piping is introduced.”

Cleanliness. — A very important sanitary consideration in any school is the cleanliness of the building. The rooms should be carefully swept, and the dust should be wiped from the furniture and the wainscoting — not thrown into the air by means of a feather duster. Heavy moldings and projections of woodwork, which catch the dust, are by no means desirable in a schoolroom. The floor should be frequently gone over with a slightly-dampened mop.

The principal should make careful examinations of the basement. Too frequently this is neglected, and the basement rooms become littered with refuse materials. An investigation will sometimes disclose, stored away in the basement, highly inflammable oils and kindling, old chemical apparatus and supplies of a dangerous character, piles of old furniture carelessly stored, affording hiding places for vermin and accumulating dust and dampness. The basement should be kept dry and clean, and should be a receptacle for only such materials as can be stored in it with entire safety.

Very much will depend upon the janitor, whose selection and retention should be conditioned upon his efficiency in all the details of his work. A careless, indolent janitor may be the cause of untold inconvenience and misery to teachers and pupils. It sometimes happens that the janitor is appointed to his place without a careful consideration of the requirements of the service. Sometimes the position is given to an aged or incompetent person, as a matter of charity or of personal favor. In the janitorship, true civil service principles should strictly prevail. The janitor should be a willing, intelligent, conscientious, and in every way efficient person. Experience will add to the value of his services.

The hygiene of the school demands cleanliness, not only of the building, but of the pupils, as well. Sometimes this is difficult to secure, even when ample lavatories are provided in the school buildings. Of course, it is the duty of the parent to see that the child is cleanly and well-kept. Unfortunately, however, parents are sometimes derelict in this matter, and the duty devolves upon the already overburdened teacher. Some principals require that the pupil shall have his shoes thoroughly cleaned and polished before coming to school, and for a failure in this respect will mark a demerit upon the record of the pupil's deportment.

With proper conveniences supplied in the lavatory of the schoolroom, there is no reason why the children should not always appear with clean hands and faces, and with hair well brushed. The teacher's duty, however, does not end here.

Dentists who have conducted investigations of the teeth of pupils in the public schools have made, sometimes, surprising revelations. In the case of many pupils, the teeth become carious and offensive. What can the teacher do to remedy or mitigate this evil? By the exercise of tact he can impress practical lessons in the hygiene of the teeth, without giving offense to any. While making his talks on the subject general, he can, at the same time, make them personally felt.

Care of the Eyes. — Investigations made by oculists in the schoolrooms have revealed a strong tendency to myopia, or nearsightedness, as a result of the pupils' study. This tendency is far less where the true principles of lighting are observed in building the schoolhouses. Where the rooms are properly lighted, and the pupils are instructed how to hold their books, there yet remains the further consideration of suitable type and paper for schoolbooks.

Whatever the merits of a text-book for school use, if its type be such as to cause injury to the eyes, it should be condemned. The smaller pupils require larger type than those of the more advanced grades. The primers and first readers are prepared with this fact in view. Without being an expert in all forms of typography, the teacher should acquire a sufficient familiarity with the more important sizes of type generally employed in books, and should be competent to pass upon the merits of a text-book in respect to its typography. In books of higher mathematics, the exponential letters and figures are frequently so small as to prove very trying to the sight.

Position at Desk, etc. — In the matter of school desks and seating, there is room for the exercise of careful discrimination and judgment, for into this, important physiological considerations necessarily enter. With the best of school seats and desks, it is possible for children to do themselves harm by sitting in unnatural positions, resting upon their elbows, and in various ways warping their figure out of its proper shape.

The pupils should learn to sit erect, with the shoulders even and thrown back, and with the soles of both feet resting naturally upon the floor. They should walk and stand erect. Their gait should be natural. They should not "toe in." With the shoulders thrown back, the arms will fall naturally in such a position that the thumbs will be inclined outward. With the chest expanded and the head erect, there will be much less danger of diseases of the lungs.

Food and Water. — Even in the pupils' eating, the teacher's influence should be exerted to some extent. While he cannot meddle with the household economy of the parents, he can give force and effect to the lessons of the text-books in physiology, so that the pupil will have an enlightened understanding of the common foods, their uses and abuses.

As to the water which the pupils drink at school, the school officers and teachers have a direct responsibility which should not be ignored. Water for drinking purposes must be clean and pure. Suitable water for drinking cannot be secured, generally, without much thought and care and some expense. The sources of its supply should be carefully investigated, and every precaution should be taken to prevent its contamination.

The evil effects of drinking impure water, like those of breathing impure air, are often long concealed, or, at least, are not conspicuously noticeable. They often cause epidemics and deplorable loss of life in the end, while this might have been easily avoided by a little thought and care on the part of those having in charge the water supply.

The responsibility of teachers and school officers for the health and comfort of the pupils is very great. It is no light charge to be accountable for the physical well-being of the scores or hundreds of children and youths in a school.

The teacher owes it to the parents in whose place he stands, to the board by which he is employed, to the pupils especially, and to himself, as well, to take a deep interest in the hygienic conditions of his school, and to post himself thoroughly upon the subject by every means in his power; and the school officer, guided by his personal observation, by the teacher's knowledge of the hygienic necessities of the building and appliances, and by such other suggestions as come to him from reliable sources of information, should feel the responsibility resting upon him to provide all things within his power to supply for the health, comfort, order, and happiness of the children at school.

IV

ARBOR DAY CELEBRATIONS

THE DICTIONARY, AND HOW TO USE IT

CHAPTER VI

ARBOR DAY CELEBRATIONS

Origin and History of Arbor Day. — Nebraska has the honor of originating the celebration of Arbor Day. In 1874, at the request of the State Board of Agriculture, the Governor of the State appointed the second Wednesday of April as a day for the planting of trees by the citizens generally, and it is said that millions of trees were planted on that day.

In Kansas the day was first observed in the city of Topeka, in accordance with a proclamation by the mayor of that city. Other States which were deficient in timber fell rapidly in line. Then still other States began to observe the day as a school holiday, which was devoted not merely to the planting of trees, but to the beautifying of school grounds as well.

If Arbor Days are necessary in the prairie States, they are not less needed in States in which timber abounds. In almost every rural district there is need for improvement in the grounds about the schoolhouse. The day has, moreover, its social and moral benefits, which are not to be rated lightly. It affords an opportunity for neighborhood visiting and consultation. It brings together the teacher, the parents, and the pupils, and prevents estrangements between them. It gives to all a new interest in the school and its work. It affords an opportunity to present to the parties most interested the school needs of the hour.

The time for Arbor Day is generally chosen in the latter part of April or the first of May. In New York the day is a

State holiday, and is designated as the first Friday following the first day of May. In Iowa the 27th of April (the birthday of General Grant) has been thus observed. In most States the selection of the day is made from year to year, and the celebration is appointed by proclamation of the Governor or by request of the Superintendent of Public Instruction. A notable celebration of Arbor Day occurred in Cincinnati, in 1882, when the city schools were dismissed for two days (April 27 and 28), and the pupils of all grades participated in the exercises.

These were held in Eden Park, of that city. About six acres of the Park were set apart for an Authors' Grove, and each school or department selected an author in whose memory a tree was planted. The planting of the trees was performed by practical horticulturists on this occasion, but the pupils filled around the trees the loose soil left for that purpose, and their musical and literary exercises were long to be remembered. The names of the authors in whose honor the trees were set out were preserved by lettered stone markers.

The fame of Authors' Grove and of its originator, John B. Peaslee, soon became national, and a very general incentive to celebrations of this sort was given to the schools of the entire country. The cause was aided by the active influence of Hon. B. G. Northrop, who delivered addresses in many States on the subject of landscape gardening for school grounds.

In 1883 the American Forestry Congress, in its session at St. Paul, Minn., recommended the appointment of an Arbor Day in every State and in all the Provinces of the Dominion of Canada.

Unless material good can be accomplished, the interruption of the studies of the school for an Arbor Day celebration will prove unprofitable. The judicious teacher, however, will be certain to make the most of the opportunity which the day presents for securing needful coöperation. Then it

is that unsightly piles of lumber, coal, firewood, logs, or other materials can be removed from the yards; sheds for fuel can be built or repaired; wells can be cleaned, walks laid, and fences mended. Beautiful flower beds can be constructed. Ungainly or noxious trees and vines can be cut away, admitting the wholesome sunlight.

A moral effect of the Arbor Day celebrations in Cincinnati was noted by Superintendent Peaslee in his address on the subject to the Department of Superintendence at Washington, in 1884. In many cities, on holiday occasions, it has been found necessary to post a large number of special policemen to guard the trees of the parks from the knives of vandals. Not a tree was injured at Eden Park by any one of the many thousands of school children, who had unusual opportunities for perpetrating mischief of this description.

Choice of Trees.—The choice of trees for planting in school grounds should be made with some care. Trees of offensive odor, and those which attract insects, litter the ground, sprout at the roots, bear thorns, and prove otherwise objectionable should be avoided. As a rule, the trees which grow wild in the same locality are most certain of a vigorous growth, and it is not necessary to go to the expense and trouble of procuring exotics, though a few of the latter may afford a pleasing variety and prove of special interest to the pupils.

Where shade is urgently needed, rapidly growing trees are often preferred, though these are the earliest to die, and are apt to become unsightly within a few years. If such trees be used at all, their retention should be considered temporary at best, and more substantial trees of slower growth should be set out at the same time, to supply the shade for the future, when the rapid growers shall have been cleared away.

Of the trees which yield a quick return and achieve an early growth, the Silver Maple (*Acer dasycarpum*), the Caro-

lina Poplar (*Populus monilifera*), and the Box Elder (*Negundo aceroides*) are familiar to all. Among the best of all trees for the school yard are the Sugar Maple (*Acer sacharinum*), the Red Maple (*Acer rubrum*), the Linden, or Basswood (*Tilia Americana*), the Elm (*Ulmus Americana*), the White Pine (*Pinus strobus*), and a variety of Cedars and Larches.

Other desirable trees to scatter over the lawn are the Beech (*Fagus ferruginea*), the Ash (*Fraxinus Americana*), the Sycamore (*Plantanus occidentalis*), the Horse Chestnut, or Buckeye (*Æsculus hippocastanum*), and the Chestnut (*Castanea vesca*).

Suggestions for Planting. — A circular of the Department of Agriculture (U. S.) contains the following valuable suggestions:

“Transplanting is at best a forcible operation, and injury to the roots, although it may be small, is almost unavoidable. The roots are the life of the tree, and need, therefore, the most attention. In taking up a tree for transplanting, the greatest care must be exercised to secure as much of the root system intact as possible, especially of the small fibrous roots.

“Never allow roots to become dry, from the time of taking up the tree until it is transplanted. A healthy looking tree may have the certainty of death in it if the root fibrils are dried out. To prevent drying during transportation, cover the roots with moist straw or moss or bags, or leave on them as much soil of the original bed as possible. At the place where the tree is to be planted, if the planting cannot be done at once, ‘heel in’ the roots, *i.e.*, cover them and part of the lower stem with fresh earth, or place the tree in the plant hole, throwing several spadefuls of earth on the roots.

“Pruning roots and branches is almost always necessary, but must be done with great care, especially as to root pruning. The cutting at the roots should be as little as possible, only removing with a clean sharp cut the bruised and broken

parts. Extra long tap roots may be cut away, but all the small fibers should be preserved. The cutting at the top is done to bring crown and root into proportion; the more loss the root system has experienced, the more need of reducing the crown system. Larger trees, therefore, usually require severer pruning, especially on poor soils; yet if there be fibrous roots enough to sustain great evaporation from the crown, the less cut the better. With large trees severe pruning is less dangerous than too little. A clean cut as close as possible to the stem or remaining branch will facilitate the healing of the wound.

"No stumps should be left (except with conifers, which suffer but little pruning). Shortening of the end shoots to $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ of their length may be done a little above a bud which is to take the lead. As a rule, the pruning for symmetry should have been done a year or so before transplanting, but may be done a year after.

"Holes are best made before the trees are brought to the ground. They should be a little deeper than the depth of the root system, but twice as large around as seems necessary, to facilitate penetration of rains and development of rootlets through the loosened soil. Place the top soil, which is better (being richer in easily assimilated plant food) to one side, the raw soil from the bottom to the other side; in filling back bring the richer soil to the bottom.

"If it be practicable, improve a heavy loamy soil by adding to and mixing with it looser sandy soil, or a loose poor soil by enriching it with loam or compost. Keep all stones out of the bottom; they may be used above the roots, or, better, on the surface. Providing proper drainage is the best means of improving ground for tree planting. Use no manure except as a top dressing.

"Planting is best done by two or three persons. A, who manipulates the tree, is the planter and responsible for the result; B and C do the spading under his direction. A places the tree in the hole, to ascertain whether this is of

proper size; a board or stick laid across the hole aids in judging the depth.

"Trees should not be set deeper than they stood before, except in loose, poor soil. More trees are killed by too deep planting than the reverse. If the root system is developed sideways, but not centrally, as is often the case, a hill is raised in the hole to fill out the hollow space in the root system, and the earth of the hill is patted down with the spade. When the hole is in proper order, A holds the tree perpendicularly in the middle of the hole, with the side bearing the fullest branches toward the south or southwest, for better protection of the shaft against the sun. B and C spread the roots into a natural position, then fill in the soil, using the good soil first—small spadefuls deliberately thrown over the roots in all directions—while A, by a slight shaking and pumping up and down of the stem, aids the earth in settling around the rootlets.

"A close contact of the soil with the rootlets is the secret of success in planting. Only fine mellow soil, not too moist, and free from stones, will permit such close adjustment to the rootlets, which should also be aided by hand and fingers filling in every crevice. A, while setting the tree, must exercise care to keep it in proper position and perpendicular, until the soil is packed so as to keep the tree in place; then B and C rapidly fill the holes, A treading down the soil firmly after a sufficient quantity is filled in, finishing off a little above the general level to allow for settling, and finally placing the stones or any mulching around the stem.

"The practice of using water while planting can hardly be said to be a good one, unless the water is very carefully applied with a 'rose' after the soil is well filled in and packed around the fibrous roots. Especially with a soil which has a tendency to clog, there is great danger of an uneven distribution and settling, with consequent empty spaces between the roots. More trees are probably killed by too much water in transplanting than by too little. Water after the trans-

planting (and perhaps before the last shovels of earth are filled in), especially if the soil was dry, is useful and should be applied during the hot season, choosing the late afternoon or evening for applying it.

“Any mulch of waste material, hay, straw, or, better, wood shavings or chips, sawdust, or even stones simply placed around the foot of the tree, is of excellent service in checking evaporation.

“Keeping the ground free from weeds and grass, and preventing it from baking, by occasional hoeing and raking, is advisable. To prevent the trees from being swayed by the wind, if of larger size, they should be staked firmly; a loose post is worse than none. The tying should be so done as not to cut or injure the tree; a tree box insures more safety against accidents. With the development of the crown it becomes necessary to trim it, so as to carry the top above reach. Trees are not benefited by being used as hitching posts or as climbing poles.”

It is highly desirable that the pupils themselves shall participate very generally in the actual work of Arbor Day. They will take greater interest and pride in preserving the improvements to which their own labors have contributed.

Literary Exercises.—The literary exercises of Arbor Day generally precede the manual work, and may be short or extended, as circumstances may suggest. After the customary opening prayer by one of the clergymen who may be present, the teacher or superintendent in charge should read the proclamation or official letter of the Governor or the Superintendent of Public Instruction appointing the observance of the day.

Letters may be read from former teachers or superintendents, and from any distinguished educator or other persons who may with propriety be invited to contribute in this way to the interest of the occasion. Suitable music should be provided, and singing in the open air is always enjoyable.

Oh ! sing, human heart, like the fountain,
With joy reverential and free,
Contented and calm as the mountain,
And deep as the woods and the sea.

— CHARLES T. BROOKS.

3. There is no death ! The dust we tread
 Shall change, beneath the summer showers,
To golden grain or mellow fruit
 Or rainbow-tinted flowers.

— LORD LYTTON.

4. One impulse from a vernal wood
 May teach you more of man,
Of moral evil, and of good,
 Than all the sages can.

— WILLIAM WORDSWORTH.

5. For there is hope of a tree, if it be cut down, that it will sprout
again,
And that the tender branch thereof will not cease.
Though the root thereof wax old in the earth,
And the stock thereof die in the ground ;
Yet through the scent of water it will bud,
And put forth boughs like a plant.

— JOB xiv. 7-9.

6. Into the blithe and breathing air,
 Into the solemn wood,
Solemn and silent everywhere,
Nature, with folded hands, seemed there
Kneeling at her evening prayer ;
 Like one in prayer I stood.

— HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

7. Like leaves on trees the life of man is found,
Now green in youth, now withering on the ground ;
Another race the following spring supplies,
They fall successive and successive rise ;
So generations in their course decay ;
So flourish these, while those have passed away.

— ALEXANDER POPE.

8. Alas, for him who never sees
The stars shine through his cypress trees ;
Who, hopeless, lays his dead away,
Nor looks to see the breaking day
Across the mournful marbles play ;
Who hath not learned, in hours of faith,
The truth to flesh and sense unknown,
That Life is ever lord of death,
And Love can never lose its own.

—JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER.

9. A little of thy steadfastness,
Rounded with leafy gracefulness,
 Old oak, give me, —
That the world's blasts may round me blow,
And I yield gently to and fro,
While my stout-hearted trunk below
 And firm-set roots unshaken be.

—JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

10. These airs, whose breathing stirs
The fresh grass, are our fellow-worshippers.
See, as they pass, they swing
The censers of a thousand flowers, that bend
O'er the young herbs of spring,
And the sweet odors like a prayer ascend,
While, passing thence, the breeze
Wakes the grave anthem of the forest trees.

—WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

11. Summer or winter, day or night,
The woods are an ever new delight ; .
They give us peace, and they make us strong,
Such wonderful balms to them belong ;
So, living or dying, I'll take my ease
Under the trees, under the trees.

—RICHARD HENRY STODDARD.

12. Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow ; they toil not, neither do they spin ; and yet I say unto you that even Solomon, in all his glory, was not arrayed like one of these. Wherefore, if God so clothe the grass of the field, which to-day is, and to-morrow is cast into the oven, shall he not much more clothe you, O ye of little faith ?

—MATTHEW vi. 28-30.

13. Oh ! Rosalind, these trees shall be my books,
And in their barks my thoughts I'll character,
That every eye which in this forest looks
Shall see thy virtue witnessed everywhere.

— WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE.

14. Out of the years bloom the eternities ;
From earth-clogged root
Life climbs through leaf and bud by slow degrees,
Till some far cycle heavenly blossom sees,
And perfect fruit.

— LUCY LARCOM.

15. The true basis of national wealth is not gold, but wood. Forest destruction is the sin that has caused us to lose our earthly paradise. War, pestilence, storms, fanaticism, and intemperance, together with all other mistakes and misfortunes, have not caused half so much permanent damage as that fatal crime against the fertility of our Mother Earth.

— FELIX L. OSWALD.

16. O whispering trees, companions, sages, friends,
No change in you, whatever friendship ends ;
No deed of yours the Eden link e'er broke ;
Bared is your head, to ward the lightning's stroke.
You fed the infant man and blessed his cot,
Hewed from your grain ; without you, he were not.
The hand that planned you planned the future, too ;
Shall we distrust it, knowing such as you ?

— JOAQUIN MILLER.

17. It is better to know the habits of one plant than the names of a thousand ; and wiser to be happily familiar with those that grow in the nearest field, than arduously cognizant of all that plume the isles of the Pacific, or illumine the Mountains of the Moon.

— JOHN RUSKIN.

18. This is the state of man. To-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope ; to-morrow, blossoms,
And bears his blushing honors thick upon him ;
The third day comes a frost, a killing frost ;
And when he thinks — good, easy man — full surely
His greatness is a-ripening, nips his roots,
And then he falls, as I do.

— WILLIAM SHAKSPEARE.

19. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods ;
 There is a rapture on the lonely shore ;
 There is society where none intrudes,
 By the deep sea, and music in its roar.
 I love not man the less, but nature more —
 From these our interviews, in which I steal
 From all I may be, or have been before,
 To mingle with the universe, and feel
 What I can ne'er express, yet cannot all conceal.

— LORD BYRON.

20. I love to go in the capricious days
 Of April, and hunt violets, when the rain
 Is in the blue cups trembling, and they nod
 So gracefully to the kisses of the wind.
 It may be deemed too idle, but the young
 Read Nature like the manuscript of heaven,
 And call the flowers its poetry.

— NATHANIEL PARKER WILLIS.

21. Faint murmurs from the pine tops reach my ear,
 As if a harp string — touched in some far sphere —
 Vibrating in the lucid atmosphere,
 Let the soft south wind waft its music here.

— THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

22. Throw hither all your quaint enameled eyes,
 That on the green turf suck the honeyed showers,
 And purple all the ground with vernal flowers.
 Bring the rathe primrose, that forsaken dies,
 The tufted crow-toe, and pale jessamine,
 The white pink, and the pansy, freaked with jet,
 The glowing violet,
 The musk rose, and the well-attired woodbine,
 With cowslips wan, that hang the pensive head,
 And every flower that sad embroidery wears.

— JOHN MILTON.

23. Keeping up a fit proportion of forests to arable land, is the prime condition of human health. If the trees go, men must decay. Whosoever works for the forests works for the happiness and permanence of our civilization. A tree may be an obstruction, but it is

never useless. Now is the time to work, if we are to be blessed and not cursed by the people of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. The nation that neglects its forests is surely destined to ruin.

— ELIZUR WRIGHT.

24. The leaf tongues of the forest, the flower lips of the sod,
The happy birds that hymn their rapture in the ear of God,
The summer wind that bringeth music over land and sea,
Have each a voice that singeth this sweet song of songs to me :
“This world is full of beauty, like other worlds above,
And if we did our duty, it might be full of love.”

— GERALD MASSEY.

25. There is nothing that so strongly binds a man to a place as the bright memories of life due to cheerful homes and pleasant surroundings. These cannot exist in a bleak and cheerless waste ; they can be secured only by timely and judicious planting of trees.

— FRANKLIN BENJAMIN HOUGH.

26. Not merely growing, like a tree,
In bulk, doth make man better be ;
Or standing long an oak three hundred years,
To fall a log at last, dry, bald and sear.
A lily of a day is fairer far in May,
Although it fall and die that night.
It was the plant and flower of light ;
In small proportions, we just beauties see,
And, in short measure, life may perfect be.

— BEN JONSON.

27. Then rears the ash his airy crest,
Then shines the birch in silver vest,
And the beech in glistening leaves is dressed ;
And, dark between, shows the oak's proud breast,
Like a chieftain's frowning tower.

— SIR WALTER SCOTT.

28. There is something unspeakably cheerful in a spot of ground which is covered with trees, that smiles amidst all the rigors of winter, and gives us a view of the most gay season in the midst of that which is the most dead and melancholy.

— JOSEPH ADDISON.

29. Trees have about them something beautiful and attractive even to the fancy. Since they cannot change their place, they are witnesses of all the changes that take place around them; and, as some reach a great age, they become, as it were, historical monuments; and, like ourselves, they have a life, growing and passing away, not being inanimate and unvarying, like the fields and rivers. One sees them passing through various stages, and at last, step by step, approaching death, which makes them look still more like ourselves.

—ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT.

30. Spake full well, in language quaint and olden,
One who dwelleth by the castled Rhine,
When he called the flowers, so blue and golden,
Stars, that in earth's firmament do shine.

Wondrous truths, and manifold as wondrous,
God hath written in those stars above;
But not less in the bright flowrets under us,
Stands the revelation of his love.

Everywhere about us they are glowing;
Some, like stars, to tell us spring is born;
Others, their blue eyes with tears o'erflowing,
Stand like Ruth amid the golden corn.

And with child-like, credulous affection,
We behold their tender buds expand;
Emblems of our own great resurrection,
Emblems of the bright and better land.

—HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW.

31. There is something nobly simple and pure in a taste for the cultivation of forest trees. It argues, I think, a sweet and a generous nature to have this strong relish for the beauties of vegetation, and this friendship for the hardy and glorious sons of the forest. There is a grandeur of thought connected with this part of rural economy. . . . He who plants an oak looks forward to future ages, and plants for posterity. Nothing can be less selfish than this.

—WASHINGTON IRVING.

32. Come forth, O ye children of gladness, come !
Where the violets lie may be now your home.
Ye of the rose lip, and dew-bright eye,
And the bounding footsteps, to meet me, fly !
With the lyre and the wreath and the joyous lay,
Come forth to the sunshine ; I may not stay.

— FELICIA DOROTHEA HEMANS.

33. When you have finished a building or any other undertaking of the like nature, it immediately begins to decay on your hands ; you see it brought to its utmost point of perfection, and from that time hastening to its ruin. On the contrary, when you have finished planting a tree, it is still arriving at greater degrees of perfection, as long as you live, and appears more delightful in each succeeding year than it did in the foregoing.

— JOSEPH ADDISON.

34. The groves were God's first temples. Ere man learned
To hew the shaft, and lay the architrave,
And spread the roof above them ; ere he framed
The lofty vault to gather and roll back
The sound of anthems ; in the darkling wood,
Amid the cool and silence, he knelt down
And offered to the Mightiest solemn thanks
And supplication. For his simple heart
Might not resist the sacred influences
Which, from the still twilight of the place,
And from the gray old trunks that, high in heaven,
Mingled their mossy boughs, and from the sound
Of the invisible breath, that swayed at once
All their green tops, stole over him, and bowed
His spirit with the thought of boundless power
And inaccessible majesty. Ah, why
Should we, in the world's riper years, neglect
God's ancient sanctuaries, and adore
Only among the crowd, and under roofs
That our frail hands have raised ? . . . Let me, at least,
Here, in the shadow of this aged wood,
Offer one hymn — thrice happy, if it find
Acceptance in His ear.

— WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

35. For Nature beats in perfect tune,
And rounds with rhyme her every rune ;
Whether she work in land or sea,
Or hide underground her alchemy.
Thou canst not wave thy staff in air,
Or dip thy paddle in the lake,
But it carves the bow of beauty there,
And the ripples in rhymes the oar forsake.
The wood is wiser far than thou ;
The wood and wave each other know.
Not unrelated, unaffied,
But to each thought and thing allied,
Is perfect Nature's every part,
Rooted in the mighty Heart.

—RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

36. Come, come into the wood ;
Pierce into the bowers
Of these gentle flowers,
Which, not in solitude
Dwell, but with each other keep society,
And, with a simple piety,
Are ready to be woven into garlands for the good ;
Or, upon summer earth,
To die, in virgin worth ;
Or to be strewn before the bride,
And the bridegroom, by her side.

Come forth on Sundays ;
Come forth on Mondays ;
Come forth on any day ;
Children, come forth to play ; —
Worship the God of Nature in your childhood ;
Worship Him at your tasks with best endeavor ;
Worship Him in your sports ; worship Him ever ;
Worship Him in the wildwood ;
Worship Him amidst the flowers ;
In the greenwood bowers ;
Pluck the buttercups, and raise
Your voices in His praise !

—YOUL.

37.

He who plants a tree
Plants a hope.
Rootlets up through fibers blindly grope ;
Leaves unfold into horizons free.
So man's life must climb
From the clods of time
Unto heavens sublime.
Canst thou prophesy, thou little tree,
What the glory of thy boughs shall be ?

He who plants a tree
Plants a joy ;
Plants a comfort that will never cloy —
Every day a fresh reality,
Beautiful and strong,
To whose shelter throng
Creatures blithe with song.
If thou couldst but know, thou happy tree,
Of the bliss that shall inhabit thee.

He who plants a tree,
He plants peace.
Under its green curtains jargons cease,
Leaf and zephyr murmur soothingly ;
Shadows soft with sleep
Down tired eyelids creep,
Balm of slumber deep.
Never hast thou dreamed, thou blessed tree,
Of the benediction thou shalt be.

He who plants a tree,
He plants youth ;
Vigor won for centuries in sooth ;
Life of time that hints eternity !
Boughs their strength uprear,
New shoots every year
On old growths appear.
Thou shalt teach the ages, sturdy tree,
Youth of soul is immortality.

He who plants a tree,
He plants love ;
Tents of coolness spreading out above
Wayfarers he may not live to see.
Gifts that grow are best ;
Hands that bless are blest ;
Plant : life does the rest !
Heaven and earth help him who plants a tree,
And his work its own reward shall be.

—LUCY LARCOM.

Indoor Exercises. — In cities, where the school grounds are apt to be limited in extent and carefully kept, the observance of Arbor Day may take the permanent form of indoor exercises, supplemented, perhaps, in the case of certain grades, by a visit to a neighboring park, botanical garden, or grove, for the purpose of viewing or collecting specimens of plant life.

In the schoolroom observance of the day by a high school, the exercises should partake of a scientific character. Essays on various interesting topics of botanical study, descriptions of vegetable growths, — especially those related to the industrial world, — sketches of the history of the science, biographical sketches of eminent botanists, etc., are appropriate to such occasions.

Where an excursion to the woods or fields is arranged, care should be taken to improve the opportunity thus offered for a profitable study of growing plants. Good specimens procured on such occasions should be preserved ; and it is just as easy to do this properly and systematically as to do it otherwise.

Plant Collections. — The following suggestions relative to plant collections will be of value to the practical teacher, whether he be engaged in high school work or in that of the country district school :

1. Every schoolhouse should be supplied with some sort of a cabinet for the preservation and display of plant collections of scientific interest. Representative high schools

are now requiring each pupil in their classes in botany to make analyses of fifty plants, as a part of the regular work in this study. In this age, pupils are taught to study the plants themselves, and not merely what the books say about them.

The teacher of botany should be supplied at all times with specimens for the illustration of the study. When the growing flowers cannot be procured, pressed or dried specimens should be at hand. Class after class should leave in the school cabinet the best of their scientifically prepared specimens, as their contribution to the collection. The plainest country schoolhouse may thus contain rich treasures gathered from the forest and prairie.

2. Specimens of plants for analysis and for preservation in the herbarium should be secured generally entire, with their roots, though no specimen for permanent preservation should exceed 16 inches in length. Where it is necessary to divide the plant, both the upper (branch leaf) and lower (seed leaf) portions should be preserved. Specimens should be secured with flowers, leaves, and fruit.

3. In gathering specimens, pupils should be provided with strong knives or knife trowels, for cutting and digging, and with a covered tin trunk, or box, about 16 inches in length, and of a form to be conveniently carried. Specimens kept moist by sprinkling will remain fresh for a number of days in such a box.

4. In gathering ferns or brakes, two fronds of each should be taken, in order that both sides may be shown; or a large fern may be doubled back upon itself. Mosses should be first dried, and then moistened, preparatory to pressing. Plants that are apt to come to pieces in the press should be previously steeped in boiling water. In drying specimens for herbariums, care should be observed in preserving the natural color and form of the plant. In order to effect this, it is essential that the moisture be absorbed before there is any decomposition.

5. The simplest flower press consists of two flat boards, 12 × 22 inches in size, bolted together by an ordinary bolt at the middle of each end. Unless the nuts be furnished with handles, a small wrench will be needed to turn them. Cleats across the ends of the boards will prevent warping.

Drying mats of convenient size, consisting of several thicknesses of newspapers stitched together, should be supplied, and there should be also a few sheets of this blotting paper. Drying papers will require to be changed daily. Thick stems of plants may be split lengthwise, in order to hasten the drying.

6. When pressed, specimens should lie in a natural position; crooked stems should not be straightened, nor straight stems curved. The pressure should be applied gradually, and continued for several days.

7. The pressed specimens should be gummed to sheets of thick white paper or light cardboard, $16\frac{1}{2} \times 10\frac{1}{2}$ inches in size. Sometimes the plant may be held in place by strips of gummed paper, but it is apt to be better preserved when fastened securely to the sheet.

The sheets may be kept in a portfolio, consisting of paste-board covers fastened by tapes or straps passing through slits in each cover, forming a hinge behind, and tied or buckled in front.

The sheets should be arranged with their backs to the left, and should bear a label on the lower left corner. The label should be neatly written, and should give the name of the plant (the scientific name, generic and specific, if the collector is sure of the species; also the common name), together with that of the collector and the time and place at which it was gathered.

In place of loose sheets, a scrapbook may be used, if preferred, and may be labeled in the same manner.

8. Lichens, cones, seeds, etc., cannot be pressed flat. For these, suitable cases may be made by gluing old slate frames firmly to pieces of cardboard trimmed to the proper size.

The wood of the frames may be covered with white paper.

9. Plant photography is not only valuable in its results, but is an interesting process in itself. It will be necessary to procure a solution of ammonia (muriate of ammonia 60 grains, water 6 ounces), a silver solution (nitrate of silver 120 grains, distilled water and alcohol each $1\frac{1}{2}$ ounces), and a baryta solution (hydriodate of baryta 8 grains, sulphate of iron 10 grains, water 2 ounces). The silver solution must be filtered from the sediment, which will form in a few hours, and must be kept in a black glass bottle. A few drops of diluted sulphuric acid should be added to the baryta solution, which should be poured off, after settling.

Strips of highly glazed paper should be cut into suitable sizes and bathed in the ammonia solution, then hung from one corner by a pin hook on a line to dry. When ready to use, the prepared paper should be quickly brushed over with the silver solution, and placed upon a smooth block of wood of like size, covered with a paper pad. The specimen leaf should be turned face downward upon the wet paper, and covered with a pane of clear glass, the size of the sheet. The apparatus should be held together by means of clamps or of heavy rubber straps, and exposed to the light for a day or two. The picture, on being removed, should be washed, and dried between two folds of cloth, then the baryta should be poured over it and turned back into the bottle.

10. Specimens of leaves may be slightly oiled, and pressed upon sheets of paper, leaving upon the latter an oily imprint. Powdered crayons of any color, mixed with a little resin, may be sifted upon this imprint; and if the sheet now be pressed with a moderately hot flatiron, the color will adhere permanently to the oiled surface, bringing out the figure of the specimen. Thin mucilage or paste may be substituted for the oil, and "Diamond Dyes" for the chalk.

11. The veins of leaves may be shown beautifully and perfectly by the following process: The leaves should be

soaked for many days in soft water, after which the green pulp may be rubbed off, carefully, with a soft cloth. The remaining skeleton of the leaf should be immersed for twelve hours in a solution consisting of one ounce of chloride of lime and one quart of water. The various forms of venation should be illustrated in this way.

12. Cross sections of trees form a very interesting part of a collection of woods. The sides should be exactly parallel, so that when piled, with those of the largest diameter at the bottom, the disks will form a cone. They may be joined together by means of screw eyes in the opposite sides, or extended into a chain. There should be two screw eyes on each side, which should be loosely linked or tied in such a manner that the disks may be either piled or extended at will.

Small longitudinal slabs of wood, having the general shape of a book, with the natural bark for the back, may be placed together in a case, as different volumes of a work are placed in the same box. A shallow box will answer for the case. Strips of wood of triangular section may be formed into a rope ladder, by means of chains of strings passing along the ends. The natural bark should be left to form one of the sides of the triangle. In these collections, exposed portions of the wood may be coated with white varnish. Labels should be placed upon the disks, below the centers; upon the book-form slabs, in the manner of the title of the book; upon the rungs of the rope ladders, on the upper triangular surface.

13. Microscopic slides without objects are called slips. They should consist of a piece of clear glass, 3×1 inches in size, with a small square or circular cover of very thin glass. They may be procured of dealers or prepared by the teacher with little trouble. A ring of cement (shellac dissolved in alcohol) about the center, to hold up and attach the cover, will inclose a space in which the object may be placed, and, if dry, fixed by touching with the white of an egg. The

slide may be covered with colored paper, leaving circular holes above and below the cell, and should be carefully labeled across one end.

14. A plain folio drawing book should be kept by members of classes in botany, in which to record microscopic investigations. Artistic and carefully developed drawings are not required. Simple outline drawings with a sketch pencil will answer every purpose. A brief description should accompany each sketch.

15. Plants are often interesting subjects for microscopic investigation. Every teacher should possess at least a pocket lens for constant use. Where a compound microscope of high power is available, a much wider field is presented for study and investigation.

Among the more interesting objects for observation are simple cellular tissue, fibro-vascular bundles, sporangia, antheridia and archegonia, stamens and pistils, pollen from the anthers, ovaries, seeds, plant hairs, protoplasm, cell formation, and the various forms of woody structure, microscopic plants, plant crystals.

16. The teacher is not by any means expected to limit his collection to the articles above described, though for the sake of a general system it may be well to follow the directions here given. Many other suitable means of preserving and displaying specimens and illustrating facts brought out in the study of plants will occur to the ingenious teacher.

"Plants may teach us lessons in sacred things," says Alphonso Wood. "While we study the facts and the forms of the vegetable world, we should also aim to learn the purposes accomplished, and the great principles adopted in its creation. We should also learn to recognize here the tokens (too long overlooked) which declare that nature sympathizes with humanity in the circumstances of the Fall, the Redemption, and the Life. Such study alone is adapted to acquaint us with the thoughts of the intelligent Creator, and to discipline aright the mind which was created in His image.

"Botany combines pleasure with improvement. It conducts the student into the fields and forests, amidst the verdure of spring and the bloom of summer; to the charming retreats of Nature in her wild luxuriance, or where she patiently smiles under the improving hand of cultivation. It furnishes him with vigorous exercise, both of body and mind, which is no less salutary than agreeable, and its subjects of investigation are all such as are adapted to please the eye, refine the taste, and improve the heart."

Benefit of Arbor Day Celebrations. — It is an error to suppose that Arbor Day observances are profitable and appropriate only to certain classes of schools. There is no school in city or town or country that may not be benefited by a hearty celebration of the day in some form. It subserves a variety of interests — material, social, educational, moral, and scientific.

To the country and town schools, Arbor Day brings the improvement of school surroundings, and the pleasant social gathering of the neighborhood; to city schools, the enjoyment of floral decorations, a break in the monotony of school routine by exercises of a highly interesting and elevating character, and, perhaps, also, a delightful visit to parks or groves; to the high school grades, a scientific entertainment, whether within doors or without, of great value as an auxiliary to their science study. Let the day be observed in some appropriate form in every school; let it be productive of moral and material good in every grade; and the memory of Arbor Day will last through after years, lingering as a beautiful picture of school life, and exerting its influence upon the character of the people.

CHAPTER VII

THE DICTIONARY, AND HOW TO USE IT

Ethics of Words.—The correct use of English words is a matter of greater importance than might appear upon a superficial consideration of the subject. We are not apt to think of it from the standpoint of morals, yet to the conscientious person it has a moral side.

What true man or woman is there, who, having received a valuable heritage in trust, to be transmitted to successors, does not feel a personal responsibility for the faithful guardianship of such trust? If the property be in the form of money, all the world will quickly hold to account the unjust or careless steward who allows it to be wasted and causes a deficit to appear in his final reckoning.

Again, what worthy citizen enjoying the use of any great public work, be it monument or edifice, will contribute to its defacement or injury by any act of vandalism? But is there a heritage of money or a public monument of brick or stone that can compare in value with the language of the Anglo-Saxon world?

When the preservation of the English language in all its purity and strength is considered from the standpoint of moral obligation, the case is much stronger than if any other language of the world were under consideration. For, in the first place, the English is apparently destined to become the universal language of the earth. In the second place, this language is by far the most copious and delicate that has ever been spoken on the globe.

Finally, the English literature is the most valuable in all the world of letters, and, by means of masterly translations, is destined to include all the great works in the literature of the entire world. The history of the present century has fixed the fate of our language. In the opening years the Spanish, French, and German languages were spoken each by a greater number of people than spoke English. At the century's closing, the almost incredible advance of the English language and literature has left all competitors very far behind, while the rate of increase is at this moment greater than before.

The English is a double language,¹ and this fact accounts for its vast number of words. In the conquests of nations which history relates, the language of the conquerors generally replaces that of the conquered. The Norman conquest of England, in 1066, is an exception to this rule. The Norman nobles, in England, continued to speak the Norman French, while the English inhabitants retained their own speech, until, after the lapse of centuries, each of the nationalities had acquired the language of the other. Inheriting, as we do, two or more words where other nations generally possess but one, we are enabled to express the finest shades of meaning; for our so-called synonyms have acquired, usually, a slight differentiation of signification and use. We are thus able to distinguish between *freedom* and *liberty*, *begin* and *commence*, *supply* and *furnish*, *answer* and *reply*, etc.

The misuse of words tends to change their meaning, and to lessen their value. By preserving the true meanings of words we shall be able to transmit to posterity and to the world of the future the greatest and best medium of com-

¹ The English language—like all other modern languages—contains words derived from many different sources. Nineteen twentieths of our words, however, are found to be derived from the two elements as stated—the Anglo-Saxon and the Norman French. The dividing line between these lies near the middle. Of the words used by Shakspeare, 60 per cent

munication between man and man—a language fitted by its fullness, its strength, and its flexibility to become the speech of all nations in the future.

The mass of the people do not acquire their language from dictionaries, but inductively, from what they hear and read. How important is it, then, that teachers, writers, and educated people generally (who are accepted by the many as models in this respect) shall inculcate a correct and discriminating use of words and a high standard of pronunciation! A teacher who mispronounces words or who uses them in a sense foreign to their true meaning sows in fertile soil the seeds of error, which will be harvested and resown until his influence for evil is multiplied. Let us strive, rather, to leave *an influence for good* upon the language of the later world.

Let us seek to transmit to posterity, unimpaired, and increased in its richness and fullness, the priceless legacy of the English Language.

Use of the Dictionary in the Schoolroom.—The dictionary should be always accessible to teachers and pupils. If your schoolroom is not already supplied with a standard work of this description, seek to remedy the defect at the earliest moment. *You cannot successfully teach without a dictionary at your command.*

It should be borne in mind that an unused dictionary is of no value. It is like the costly apparatus which, in too many schools of the past, has been locked in an unused room, to be shown to occasional visitors. The dictionary should be accessible and in constant use.

Some teachers hedge this use with annoying regulations which tend to lessen its value. This, of course, should be

are of Saxon origin. The same is true of the words in our common English Bible. Most authors of the present day use a considerably larger percentage of words derived from the Norman French than did the writers of an earlier period. In its grammatical structure, the English language is Anglo-Saxon.

avoided. The dictionary should be placed in the most conveniently accessible position in the schoolroom, and its use should be encouraged by the granting of every proper facility for consulting it. A good dictionary holder is perhaps better than a table for holding the book; and since the true teacher is wise and careful in little matters, he will use discrimination in his selection of the stand, or holder, and in its location in the room.

Where a dictionary is published in several volumes (as, for example, *The Century Dictionary*, which can be procured in six separate parts), it is well to have a small cabinet of shelves prepared to hold them. When the work is procured in parts, several pupils can consult it at one and the same time. The divisions of the cabinet should be horizontal shelves, so that they may be lettered, to correspond to the respective volumes which rest upon them.

It is a fact that very many pupils, and perhaps a large number of teachers, as well, have no adequate idea of the proper use of the dictionary. They consult it in order to learn the proper spelling and pronunciation of words, and to find a meaning which will serve for their immediate use; and with many, these are the *only* uses that are made of the volume. The origin of words, and their history, the syllabication, etc., are passed by, as of no consequence — though these are often of much importance.

Webster as a Standard. — Webster's dictionary is now so generally accepted as a standard, and has exerted so vast an influence upon our language, that every teacher should be familiar with and interested in the reforms which the author sought to effect.

All rules of language have their exceptions, and the English orthography is highly inconsistent with itself, at best. Webster sought to bring to bear certain rules which would simplify the English spelling. He did not seek to eliminate all the silent letters, so as to make the orthography strictly phonetic; for that, even if desirable as an

end,¹ would have involved so radical a departure as to insure failure at the outset; and a people which for fifty years held out against the use of the decimal point in arithmetic was not likely to accept of many sweeping innovations at once. But Webster succeeded in eliminating from our orthography much useless lumber; and interesting estimates have been made upon the vast labor-saving which he secured to the people of America, at least, by his reforms. One of the most noticeable services of the great American lexicographer in this direction was the elimination of the useless letter *u* from many words in which it had no logical place. Already it had been generally dropped from *cold*, *bold* (anciently *could*, *bould*), etc. Why should it linger in *mold* (mould)? The final *e* had been long dropped from *tax*, *wax*, etc. Why should it remain in *ax* (axe)?

One of the most interesting of Webster's rules relates to the doubling of final consonants when terminations are added to a word. With this rule every teacher should be familiar, so that he will never be in doubt as to whether he should write *traveler* or *traveller*, *woolen* or *woollen*, *jeweler* or *jeweller*.

It does not meet the case to say that authorities differ as to the spelling of these words. The true teacher should be familiar with the rule upon which Webster acted in his treatment of them; and if that rule commends itself to his judgment (as generally it will), he should follow it and inculcate it in his pupils.

The order of the various meanings of a word, as given in Webster's Dictionaries, is not always understood by teachers and pupils.

In Latin and Greek lexicons, the most generally applied meaning is given first. The German lexicographers, who

¹ It is by no means desirable that all the silent letters be eliminated from our language. Originally, these were generally vocalized, and have become silent through the change of usage in the course of centuries. As late as Shakspeare's time there were many who, in their pronunciation, sounded the *b* in *debt*, the *l* in *calf*, etc. The *gh* in *right*, *thought*, etc., originally

with patience and industry almost unparalleled have compiled the lexicons of the ancient languages, have acted upon this plan. They have taken one Latin or Greek word at a time, and noted every instance of its use in classical literature, the context indicating in each case its particular meaning in a sentence. The meaning in which it is used the greatest number of times has been set down as its first, or primary meaning. The other meanings follow in strictly numerical order.

The order followed by Webster and other lexicographers of the English language is wholly different from this; and with the facts in each case every teacher should be familiar. Webster's order of meanings is *historical*. The first meaning which he assigns to a word is the meaning which it *originally* possessed, even though that be now obsolete or obsolescent. Formerly, the word *prevent* meant, simply, *to go before*, or *to precede*; and it was natural for one to say, "I will rise early to-morrow, to *prevent* the rising of sun." Probably the original meaning of *sincere* was *without wax*. The word was perhaps used at first to describe honey that was *pure* and *unadulterated*. The original meaning of *transpire* was *to sweat*. The original meaning of *starve* was, simply, *to die*, or *perish* (from whatever cause). There are not a few teachers who look to the first-given meaning of a word for the most general meaning in the usage of the present day.

Syllabication. — Syllabication is another matter in which Webster followed an independent course. The subject should be understood by all writers, for, by our universal rule, words divided at the end of a line must be so divided that their syllables shall remain entire.

represented a guttural sound which was characteristic of the Germanic races, but which has been eliminated from our speech. The silent letters contained in a word generally indicate its origin, and are often of great value to philologists. There is no question, however, that we might judiciously dispense with more of these than were dropped in the reforms of Noah Webster.

In respect to syllabication, Webster differs from British orthographers. He forms a syllable of the sounds which are uttered with one impulse of the voice. Our British cousins are apt to have more regard for the etymology of the word in their syllabication. Thus they write *ov-ate* where we write *o-vate*. The word comes from the Latin root *ov*, an egg; and the British syllabication takes this fact into account; whereas our own (according to Webster) has regard only for the impulse of the voice in pronouncing it. At the same time, it must be said that Webster does not *wholly* disregard etymologies in his system of syllabication.

"Since the intent and purpose of written words is to represent speech," says the *International Dictionary*, "there is really no good reason for allowing etymology to control syllabic division, in ordinary writing and print, in any other way than indirectly through its influence on the customary pronunciation."

Origin and History of Words. — The etymologies of words are subjects of great interest, and without them the value and force of many expressions are not fully appreciated. Many of our most expressive words come to us from the folk stories of past generations. One who is familiar with the story of the boastful and bellicose Hector will appreciate the meaning of the word *hectoring*. The student who has read the *Iliad*, and remembers the trumpet-voiced herald named Stentor, will readily catch the meaning of the word *stentorian*. One who has read of Procrustes (who laid his victims on his fatal bed, and either cut off their limbs or stretched them by horrible tension, so as to make all fit to his measure) will note at a glance the meaning of the word *procrustean*.

In like manner we derive the words *shibboleth*, *palladium*, *mausoleum*, *iridescent*, etc., from the folklore of the ancients! The folklore of the modern world is not less prolific of expressive words. In our political vocabulary we find such terms as *gerrymander*, *logrolling*, *pipelaying*, *lobbying*, *bun-*

combe, not to speak of such partisan epithets as *carpet-bagger* and *copperhead*. The force and application of these terms can be learned only by an acquaintance with their origin. Never before has folklore been so highly esteemed by scholars as at the present time.

The etymologies of the most ordinary words are exceedingly interesting; and when any word is studied in the dictionary, its origin and history should receive careful consideration. Our words that are derived from the Norman French can be traced, generally, through their parent words to the more ancient Latin, from which the Norman French, in its turn, was principally derived. Take the common expression, "*Yes, Ma'am.*" The *ma'am* is a shorter form of the English *madam*. The latter is derived from the Old French *madame*, which, in its turn, leads back to the Latin *mea domina* (*my lady*).

On the other hand, our words which come to us through the Anglo-Saxon (or Old English, as it is now largely called) may be traced usually to the more ancient Germanic root words. The word *starve* comes to us from the Anglo-Saxon *steorban*, which is allied to the German *sterben* (*to die*). It will be seen that the Anglo-Saxon words are much stronger in their meaning than their synonyms which are derived from the Norman French; thus *love* is stronger than *affection*, *fear* is stronger than *apprehension*, *anger* is stronger than *resentment*, etc.

It is a noteworthy fact that the common terminations derived from the Saxon words (such as *ness* in *goodness*, *kindness*, etc., and *ly* in *goodly*, *kindly*, etc.) are used almost exclusively with words derived from the same source. In like manner, the common endings which we derive from the Norman French (such as *ty* in *urbanity*, *rapidity*, etc., and *tion* in *creation*, *preparation*, etc.) are used almost exclusively with words from the same source.

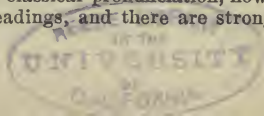
A hybrid word made up of an Anglo-Saxon word and a Norman French ending was for centuries a thing unknown.

A few of these have crept into our language within the past century. At the time of the Revolutionary War, an English statesman named Henry Dundas, afterwards Lord Melville, made a speech in Parliament on American affairs, in which he was so carried away by his excitement that he used the then absurd expression *starvation*. Nothing could have exceeded the ludicrousness of the expression. It was as though he had cautioned his hearers against the *fight-ation* of the Americans, or had provided for the *eat-ation* of the British army. In the laugh that went round the world, the word *starvation* was applied as a nickname to the luckless speaker, who has gone down in history, not as Lord Melville, but as "Starvation" Dundas. Because of its frequent use in succeeding years, the word has ceased to seem incongruous or absurd; yet it serves as a caution to careless speakers not to coin new words unthinkingly by the joining of incompatible elements of language.

Scripture Proper Names.—The dictionary contains the proper names of Scripture, with the pronunciation of each. Assuredly, every teacher should be able to read the Bible correctly. The Scripture names are to be pronounced without any foreign affectation, in the broad, clear English, as indicated. One may find fault with the fact that *Jairus* is pronounced in one way as it occurs in the Old Testament and in another way as it appears in the New Testament, and he may object to the pronunciation of *Alexandria* and *Philadelphia*¹ with the accent on the penult, as contrary to modern usage; yet it is best to follow the authorities in these as in other matters.

Foreign Phrases.—The dictionaries (Webster's *International*, and also the *Unabridged* which bears his name) contain a long list of foreign phrases which are largely used by

¹ In reading the Bible it is not improper to give these geographical names their ordinary English pronunciation. The classical pronunciation, however, is preferred by many for Scripture readings, and there are strong arguments in its favor.



English authors. It is often objected that the use of such phrases smacks of pedantry, and should be discouraged. Nevertheless, these phrases are used to a large extent. Many of them express ideas relating to law and to other professions. Many are exceedingly felicitous as adages. It would be an exhibition of great temerity to condemn their use simply because they are foreign in language—for in many cases they belong to the great world, irrespective of nationality. Where they are used at all, they should be used correctly.

Probably it is a good rule to make use of foreign expressions only in the cases in which there are no English terms that will answer the purpose as well. However, the writers of books that we read do not always follow this rule; and if we are to make any use of the foreign words and phrases which writers employ, it is absurd to attempt to apply English analogies of sound to their pronunciation. The teacher and the pupil should consult the dictionary list for the meaning of such foreign phrases and proverbs as come under their observation, for many of these are certain to belong to the universal language of the future.

Fictitious Persons and Places.—A very great change has come over the world of learned men in respect of folklore. What was at one time brushed away with impatience as childish fable is now tenderly cherished as a memorial of humanity's childhood. The stories of *Cinderella*, *Jack the Giant Killer*, etc., are now accepted as a valuable legacy. These stories are utilized by modern educators in the school-room, and the value of folk tales is appreciated by the most learned.

The *Dictionary of Fiction* is a very important part of Webster's dictionaries. To it reference should be made for the elucidation of every allusion to characters of fiction and folklore that may be encountered in the reading of the school. The characters of Dickens, by themselves, are sufficient in number to populate a respectable town; and as Dickens wrote

with a great moral purpose in view, his characters are full of inspiration and of caution to all readers.

Biographical Names. — In these days of universal dissemination of views and of current history, biographical names play an important part. The teacher who pronounces these phonetically or without heed to any system does himself and his pupils great injustice. Often the names of eminent men and women in foreign lands bear little resemblance, in their pronunciation, to our phonetic equivalents of the letters which compose them.

It is idle to assume that the pupil's knowledge of great men should be restricted to those of our own country; and even if it were so restricted, our analogies and rules of pronunciation are apt to fail when it comes to proper names.

The conscientious teacher will seek to inculcate a correct and standard pronunciation of such names. He will not attempt to speak of *Goethe*, *Thiers*, *Berthoven*, *Fénelon*, *Diiraeli*, *Anne Boleyn*, *Brougham*, *Agricola*, *Bulwer*, etc., without referring to such aid as the dictionary offers for the correct sounds of the letters, where he is in doubt as to them.

Gazetteer. — The same general statement may be made as to geographical terms. In an earlier day, teachers were apt to pronounce these according to English analogy in every case. Not one in ten, perhaps, correctly pronounced such names as *Labrador*, *Paraguay*, *Uruguay*, *Antilles*, *Apalachian*, *Danish America*, *Balearic*, *Loffoden*, *Edinburgh*, *Hawarden*, *Valparaiso*, etc. An improvement in this respect is very generally manifest at this time, yet there is room for much more. A useful feature of the dictionary is its treatment of geographical names; and to the standard pronunciation of these every teacher should conform.

Abbreviations and Contractions. — A valuable feature of the dictionary is its list of abbreviations. There are many teachers who have not yet learned to distinguish between an abbreviation and a contraction. *Chas.* is an abbreviation,

and is to be pronounced as though the word were written out in full. The fact that it is an abbreviation is indicated by the period. *Can't* is a contraction, and this fact is indicated by the use of the apostrophe; not only are certain letters omitted, but their sounds are wanting as well. *Nos.* (and not *No's*) is the abbreviation for *numbers*. *Bros.* (and not *Bro's*) is the abbreviation for the word *brothers*. *Sam'l* is a contraction indicating a slipshod colloquial pronunciation of the name. *Fred.* is an abbreviation for *Frederick*, and is to be pronounced as though the word were written in full; while *Fred* is simply a short form of the name, and is to be pronounced as written.

Classed with the abbreviations are certain substitutions which are often puzzling to teachers. In ancient inscriptions we frequently find *ye* for *the*, and the unwary pronounce the word as though it were the pronoun *ye*. As a matter of fact, the *y* is simply substituted for the form of the ancient Anglo-Saxon *th*, which bore a resemblance to this letter, and which long lingered in English literature. In the abbreviations for *ounce* and *videlicet* (respectively, *oz.* and *viz.*), the teacher is often at a loss to account for the use of the letter *z*, since it does not appear in either word. The fact is this: The letter is here substituted for an ancient sign of abbreviation, which bore some resemblance to it. This sign was formerly placed after the *o* and the *vi* in the words mentioned above. Subsequently, the period was used in the abbreviations, and generally replaced the old mark. As a result of carelessness on the part of former teachers and printers, we have illogically retained in these words both signs of abbreviation.

Pronunciation. — Every teacher is presumably acquainted with the nature and use of diacritical marks to indicate the correct pronunciation of words; yet there are very many teachers who have not made a sufficiently thorough investigation of the subject of pronunciation. It must be remembered that the same letter does not always have exactly the

same sound in different words, even though it have the same diacritical mark.

To illustrate: the *o* in the word *hot* has not exactly the sound of the same letter in the word *dog*, though the vowel is marked alike in both cases. The vowel in the word *the* is pronounced in three different ways, according to the way it is used—by itself, before another word commencing with a vowel, or before another word commencing with a consonant.

In larger dictionaries, the subject of pronunciation is fully discussed, each letter being considered separately. With the lexicographer's exposition of the subject the teacher should be thoroughly familiar, for pronunciation is a matter which he cannot avoid or postpone. It is a subject which enters into every utterance of his own and into every word spoken by his pupils. He who carefully canvasses the entire subject of pronunciation, preparatory to teaching, will be relieved of innumerable difficulties which will otherwise confront him.

History of the English Language.—The larger dictionaries contain, generally, a history of the development of the English language from the Anglo-Saxon, describing its accessions from the Celtic speech and those resulting from the Danish and Norman invasions of England, and exhibiting specimens of English compositions of various periods, to mark the transitions to the English of our own day. The history of the growth of the language is valuable to every teacher and every high school pupil, yet there are very many such who have not availed themselves of it.

The illustrations of the larger dictionaries may be made very useful in teaching the sciences, especially botany and zoölogy, for they represent a great number of interesting species in the vegetable and the animal world.

The Choice of a Dictionary.—Webster's *International Dictionary* is the latest edition of the work of America's greatest lexicographer. It contains the definitions of 140,000

words. Whatever other dictionaries a school may possess, this should be procured and constantly used.

Webster's *Pictorial Dictionary* contains a glossary of Scottish words. Since the reading of Scottish authors of prose and verse is becoming more general from year to year, this feature of the volume is more important than it was formerly.

A cyclopedia is a larger and more generalized form of dictionary, and is exceedingly valuable as an appointment of the schoolroom. Formerly the cost of cyclopedias proved an insurmountable obstacle to their very general use in the smaller schools. The multiplication of cheaper books of this class has led to a vast extension of the use of such reference books, and probably the time is not far distant when the country schools will generally include a cyclopedia in their furnishings.

Gazetteers, atlases, biographical dictionaries, *The Dickens Dictionary*, botanical floras, books of synonyms, etc., are valuable adjuncts to the working materials of schools, and are especially valuable in high schools.

Whatever dictionary, cyclopedia, or other books of reference may be procured, care should be exercised to secure the latest editions. The language is growing rapidly, and new terms of special interest to the educated are constantly appearing. Meanwhile, old words are changing their forms, to some extent. But a few years ago the words *schoolhouse*, *schoolbook*, *schoolmaster*, *newspaper*, and many others which are now consolidated were written with hyphens. Errors in the old editions are corrected in the new.

The demand of the day in education is for men and women who are representative of modern progress — who “keep up with the times.”

So vast is the influence of the dictionary upon the work of the school, and so great is its value as a force — at once conservative and progressive — in language and in literature, that the true teacher is not likely to overestimate the importance of its constant and enlightened use.

V

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

SCHOOL MORALS

SCH. INT. & DUT.—11

CHAPTER VIII

SCHOOL LIBRARIES

The Influence of Unwholesome Literature.—Teachers who were fond of reading Gail Hamilton's pungent books of an earlier decade will remember her stinging criticism of a class of literature prepared for young readers. The books which she held up to ridicule were written with the purest motives, and were purchased with money that was consecrated to the loftiest purposes; for her "skirmish" was directed against the pernicious elements in Sunday-school literature. *Skirmishes and Sketches* exerted so strong an influence upon the popular judgment of general literature, and is so apposite to the subject of school libraries, that a few quotations from it will serve as an introduction to this chapter :

"I mean," says Gail Hamilton, "the avalanche of silly books which is continually sliding down upon the young mind, and which threatens to bury all vigor, all intelligence, all intellectual activity, under a mass of stilted, sentimental nonsense.

"We often hear and read ecclesiastical deprecation of novel reading, but do our Christian parents know that their children are surfeiting themselves at the Sunday-school libraries with weak and worthless novels? If false views of life, if unnatural representations of character, if appeals to passion and vanity, if melodramatic scenes and sensational incidents make novels pernicious reading for the young, then are our Sunday-school libraries dealing out pernicious reading. How

long this evil has been in existence I do not know, but it seems to be at full tide now.

"I have looked over an old catalogue of a Sunday-school library, collected about sixteen years ago, and compared it with catalogues of several late collections. Judging merely from the titles, the books of the old library are of a far higher class than those of the new. . . .

"In the modern catalogues, I look in vain for books of similar substance. The greater number are pathetic stories of little girls who died and who ought never to have lived; scaring stories of little boys who went to a circus, and thence by short and easy stages to the state prison; . . . thrilling stories of pious lads who rush through ridicule, persuasion, and sundry forms of opposition, converting all before them.

"The story, as a form of entertainment or instruction, has its appointed place, and is open to no objection; but such stories as run riot through our Sunday-school literature are neither sweet to the taste nor to be desired to make one wise. They do not appeal to the imagination, nor to the consciousness, scarcely at all to the conscience, nor to any faculty of the soul, save a languid curiosity or a morbid craving for sentiment. Their work is doubly harmful."

Timely and deserved as this criticism was, there existed at the same time more urgent need for a reform in the literature of the street, which exerted a baleful influence upon a vastly greater number of young people than were likely to be injured by morbid Sunday-school books.

In the cities, especially, a flood of demoralizing prints was poured forth to corrupt the minds and hearts of boys. Probably in no other country of the world was this evil so great as in the United States, where the art of reading is universally acquired, and where no system of press censorship exists.

Teachers of the public schools were not slow to observe the influence of unwholesome literature upon their pupils.

For a long period, however, the matter of the child's general reading was deemed a subject of parental care and responsibility exclusively, and teachers, as a rule, took no active interest in measures of reform in reference to it.

The effects of such reading became so noticeable that the attention of the public was generally drawn to the danger of literature of this class. In various cities were unearthed dens of youthful depravity in vacated cellars and garrets — the rendezvous of young criminals who were often children of respectable families, and were led away by the glamour with which pernicious literature invested criminal lives. Railway conductors began to report numerous cases of young runaways who had started to the West to kill Indians. Crazy boys wandered about the streets, hatless and forlorn, and able only to say, in response to inquiries, "I am Willie, the Boy Detective," or "I am the Terror of the Plains."

Prof. William G. Sumner, of Yale University, was led to make an investigation of the subject, and prepared a paper which stated forcibly the danger and prevalence of the pernicious stuff which passed for juvenile literature. The paper was published in *Scribner's Monthly*, and attracted general attention. So able was this exposition of the evil, and so astonishing were its disclosures, that the reader of this volume will welcome the reproduction here of extended extracts from it.

"Few gentlemen who have occasion to visit news offices," said Professor Sumner, "can have failed to notice the periodical literature for boys, which has been growing up during the last few years. The increase in the number of these papers and magazines, and the appearance, from time to time, of new ones, which, to judge by the pictures, are always worse than the old, seem to indicate that they find a wide market. Moreover, they appear not only among the idle and vicious boys in great cities, but also among schoolboys whose parents are careful about the influences

brought to bear on their children. No student of social phenomena can pass with neglect facts of this kind — so practical and so important in their possible effects on society.

“These periodicals contain stories, songs, mock speeches, and negro minstrel dialogues — and nothing else. The literary material is either intensely stupid or spiced to the highest degree with sensation. The stories are about hunting, Indian warfare, California desperado life, pirates, wild sea adventure, highwaymen, crimes and horrible accidents, horrors (tortures and snake stories), gamblers, practical jokes, the life of vagabond boys, and the wild behavior of dissipated boys in great cities.

“This catalogue is exhaustive. There are no other stories. The dialogue is short, sharp, and continuous. It is broken by the minimum of description and by no preaching. It is almost entirely in slang of the most exaggerated kind, and of every variety — that of the sea, of California, and of the Bowery; of negroes, ‘Dutchmen,’ Yankees, Chinese, and Indians, to say nothing of that of a source of the most irregular and questionable occupations ever followed by men. When the stories even nominally treat of school life, they say nothing of *school* life. There is simply a succession of practical jokes, mischief, outrages, heroic but impossible feats, fighting, and horrors, but nothing about the business of school, any more than if the house in which the boys live were a summer boarding house.

“The sensational incidents in these stories are introduced by force, apparently for the mere purpose of producing a highly spiced mixture.

“One type who figures largely in these stories is the vagabond boy in the streets of a great city, in the Rocky Mountains, or at sea. Sometimes he has some cleverness in singing or dancing or ventriloquism or negro acting, and he gains a precarious living while roving about. This vagabond life of adventure is represented as interesting and

enticing; and when the hero rises from the vagabond life to flash life, that is represented as success.

"Respectable home life, on the other hand, is not depicted at all, and is only referred to as stupid and below the ambition of a clever youth. Industry and economy in some regular pursuit or in study are never mentioned at all. Generosity does not consist even in luxurious expenditure, but in wasting money. The type seems to be that of the gambler, one day 'flush' and wasteful, another day ruined and in misery.

"These stories are not markedly profane, and they are not obscene. They are indescribably vulgar. They represent boys as engaging all the time in the rowdy type of drinking. The heroes are either swaggering, vulgar swells of the rowdy style, or they are in the vagabond mass below the rowdy swell. They are continually associating with criminals, gamblers, and low people who live by their wits.

"The theater of the stories is always disreputable. The proceedings and methods of persons of the criminal and disreputable classes who appear in the stories, are all described in detail. The boy reader obtains a theoretical and literary acquaintance with methods of fraud and crime. Sometimes drunkenness is represented in its disgrace and misery, but generally drinking is represented as jolly and entertaining, and there is no suggestion that boys who act as the boys in these stories do, ever have to pay any penalty for it in after life."

The public protest against this species of literature grew rapidly in volume. An appeal for reform was issued, signed by such eminent men as Noah Porter, Theodore D. Woolsey, Francis A. Walker, Leonard Bacon, Francis Wayland, and others.

The eminent and statesmanly Charles Francis Adams, Jr., in an address to the teachers of Quincy, Mass., called upon them and their fellow-workers to interest themselves in

securing a remedy for this great evil of the time. Said Mr. Adams :

“It is the fault of a system which brings a community up in the idea that a poor knowledge of the rudiments of reading, writing, and arithmetic constitutes in itself an education. Now, on the contrary, it seems to me that the true object of all your labors as real teachers, if, indeed, you are such, — the great end of the common school system, — is something more than to teach children to read ; it should, if it is to accomplish its full mission, also impart to them a love of reading.

“A man or woman whom a whole childhood spent in the common schools has made able to stumble through a newspaper or to labor through a few trashy books is scarcely better off than one who cannot read at all. Indeed, *I doubt if he or she is as well off* ; for it has long been observed that a very small degree of book knowledge almost universally takes a depraved shape. . . .

“As far as I can judge, we teach our children the mechanical part of reading, and then turn them loose to take their chances. If the child has naturally an inquiring or imaginative mind, he perchance may work his way unaided through the traps and pitfalls of literature ; but the chances seem to me to be terribly against him. Yet, here on the threshold of this vast field — you might even call it this wilderness — of general literature, full as it is of holes and bogs and pitfalls all covered over with poisonous plants, here it is that our common school system brings our children, and, having brought them here, it leaves them to go on or not, just as they please ; or, if they do go on, they are to find their own way or to lose it, as it may chance. I think this is all wrong. Our educational system *stops just where its assistance might be made invaluable* ; just where it passes out of the mechanical, and touches the individual ; just where instruction ceases to be a drudgery, and becomes a source of pleasure.”

The Influence of Good Literature. — Prof. Robert C. Metcalf, of Boston, proposed to the teachers of that city a practical plan for the direction of the pupils in their reading. He said:

“How, then, shall we so connect the public school with the public press and the public library that the pupil can, to the best advantage, secure the benefits of each?”

“Our scholars will read; there is no doubt at all about that. It only remains for us to direct their reading so as to reach and secure what is good and avoid all that is bad. The teachers should require all pupils above the age of ten years to own a notebook in which shall be recorded, from time to time, the names of all books that might be read with profit in connection with the subjects taught in the school-room. A lesson in geography might suggest *The Swiss Family Robinson* or *Robinson Crusoe*; a lesson in history, *The Days of Bruce* or some of Scott’s novels; a lesson in reading would perhaps suggest *Stellar Worlds* or some interesting biography.

“Thus in a few years the child has had his attention called to many good books of real value, because they throw a flood of light upon, and add a deal of interest to, subjects of actual study in his school. But more than this should be done, especially in the higher classes. The teacher should require every pupil to make a weekly report of his reading, to be recorded in a book kept for this special purpose, in which the pupils’ names should be arranged alphabetically, with the necessary space for each child.

“Such an inspection and record of the reading of a class will work a wonderful change in its character, even in the space of one short year; and if systematically followed up for a term of years, by a capable teacher, I believe it would render much more satisfactory the later work, when the children become men and women.”

Dr. James H. Smart, the eminent Indiana educator, published in 1880 a pamphlet on *Books and Reading for the*

Young, in which he made use of much that has been quoted in the preceding pages of this chapter. The pamphlet was a reprint from the author's official report, as State Superintendent of Public Instruction; for to an improvement in the choice of reading for the school children of Indiana he had devoted his superior abilities as an investigator and organizer.

If one would seek to learn the result of such efforts in that State, let him know that there are now enrolled in Indiana about one hundred and seventy-five thousand members of the Pupils' Reading Circle, and that pure and wholesome literature is supplied in abundance through the multitude of libraries to which pupils have free access.

Need for School Libraries.—As to the manner in which school libraries can be procured, the diversity of laws in the various States renders it difficult to make specific suggestions of a very general application. This, however, can be said: Every teacher or superintendent can interest himself in seeing that the existing legal provisions for the supply of library books are applied in his district or county or city.

The fact that there is an excellent township, city, or district library maintained independently of the school does not do away with the necessity for a school library of some sort, though it may modify the needs of the school in this respect, and prove of great value to teachers and pupils. The school library and the other (corporation) library may be made to supplement each other.

The need for a school library of some sort is universal. In the most humble schoolhouse of a country district there should be a bookcase for the care of books that may be donated to the school, and for the preservation of unclaimed text-books that may be left in the building. Books which are donated to schools by publishers, authors, and others are often lost to the schools through carelessness as to the proper disposition to be made of them. It is a lamentable fact that

very many persons who are estimable in their general character have an easy conscience in the matter of books that "come easy" to the school; and many teachers have been careless as to the final disposition of publications presented to them in trust for the benefit of the schools under their charge.

The teacher who secures the nucleus of a library, and takes care that the books which come into the possession of the school are suitably stamped or marked to indicate such ownership, will generally have the satisfaction of seeing that nucleus expand.

Certainly one rare and notable opportunity has been very generally neglected. Within the past fifteen years the Bureau of Education at Washington has been distributing large editions of well-printed *Circulars of Information* on a variety of subjects of the greatest interest and value to teachers, school officers, and students.

These pamphlets are very rarely reprinted, and when the original supply is exhausted they are not to be had at any price. They should have been collected by teachers and superintendents, and bound for permanent preservation—for, while in pamphlet form they are tolerably durable, there are very many people who are prone to rate the value of a publication according to the expensiveness of its cover, and who see little value in an old official pamphlet. Children and janitors are by no means free from this tendency. As a result, the number of files of *Circulars of Information* in existence at this time is very small. A teacher who looks over the list of the *Circulars of Information* which have been issued from the Bureau cannot but feel a longing to have access to such a library, covering, as it does, a hundred points of educational interest in the modes of teaching, school supervision, school architecture and sanitation, school law, school recreations, etc.

The best way in which to secure the permanent preservation of a pamphlet—or, rather, the first thing to be done in

order to secure it—is to have it durably and handsomely bound. The expense of binding books is small—especially where, as in the case described, a number may be bound together.

Report of the Committee of Ten.—One of the *Circulars of Information* is receiving very general attention at this time. This is the famous *Report of the Committee of Ten*. On the subject of English, considered as a branch of study, the *Report* contains the following practical suggestions:

“From the beginning of the *third year* at school, the pupil should be required to supplement his regular reading-book with other reading-matter of a distinctly literary kind. At the beginning of the *seventh school year* the reading book may be discarded, and the pupil should henceforth read literature,—prose and narrative poetry in about equal parts. Complete works should usually be studied. When extracts must be resorted to, these should be long enough to possess a unity of their own and to serve as a fair specimen of an author’s style and method. . . .

“The study of literature and training in the expression of thought, taken together, are the fundamental elements in any proper high school course in English, and demand not merely the largest share of time and attention, but continuous and concurrent treatment throughout the four years. The Conference therefore recommends the assignment of three hours a week for four years (or 480 hours in the total) to the study of literature, and the assignment of two hours a week for the first two years, and one hour a week for the last two years (or 240 hours in the total) to training in composition. By the study of literature the Conference means the study of the works of good authors, not the study of a manual of literary history. . . .

“The history of English literature should be taught incidentally, in connection with the pupil’s study of particular authors and works; the mechanical use of ‘manuals of literature’ should be avoided, and the committing to memory

of names and dates should not be mistaken for culture. In the fourth year, however, an attempt may be made, by means of lectures or otherwise, to give the pupil a view of our literature as a whole, and to acquaint him with the relations between periods. This instruction should accompany — not supersede — a chronologically arranged sequence of authors. In connection with it a syllabus or brief primer may be used. . . .

“The specific recommendations of the Conference as to English requirements for admission to colleges and scientific schools are the following:

“1. That the reading of certain masterpieces of English literature, not fewer in number than those at present assigned by the Commission of New England Colleges, should be required.

“2. Each of these should be so far as possible representative of some period, tendency, or type of literature, in order that alternative questions like those suggested in paragraph No. 5 (below) may be provided. The whole number of these works selected for any year should represent, with as few gaps as possible, the course of English literature from the Elizabethan period to the present time.

“3. Of these books a considerable number should be of a kind to be read by the student cursorily, and by himself. A limited number, however, may be read in the class room under the immediate direction of the teacher.

“4. In connection with the reading of all these required books the teacher should encourage parallel or subsidiary reading and the investigation of pertinent questions in literary history and criticism. The faithfulness with which such auxiliary work is carried on should be constantly tested by means of written and oral reports and class-room discussion, and the same tests should be applied to the required books read cursorily (see paragraph No. 3).

“5. The Conference doubts the wisdom of requiring, for admission to college, set essays (*e.g.* on the books pre-

scribed, as above, paragraph No. 1), essays whose chief purpose is to test the pupil's ability to write English.

"It is believed that there are serious theoretical and practical objections to estimating a student's power to write a language on the basis of a theme composed not for the sake of expounding something that he knows or thinks, but merely for the sake of *showing his ability to write*. Therefore, so long as the formal essay remains a part of the admission examination, it is recommended that questions on topics of literary history or criticism, or on passages cited from prescribed works, be set as an alternative."

Choice of Books.—This extract, which is inserted somewhat digressively, will serve to suggest the classes of books for high school pupils which is contemplated in the proposed plan for a systematic study of literature during the period of the high school course. Cheap and well-prepared editions of English classics are now issued in large numbers by various publishing houses, for the use of schools. At the same time, carefully graded books for children of the primary and grammar departments of schools are published in great variety. To the exertions of the teachers and school officers of the country is largely due the vast change that has been wrought within the past decade in the character of the general reading of the boys and girls of America. To their continued efforts in this direction will be due incalculable good in the future.

The principal provinces of a library are history, science, and literature (using the term in its more restricted meaning). Included under these general divisions are biography, travel, the historical novel, the drama, poetry, the scientific treatise, essays, literary criticism, art criticism, romance, civil government, pedagogics, sociology, etc.

It is not to be denied that juvenile books of history are much better adapted to interest and instruct the young readers than are the great works of the world's historians. Abbott's histories of Xerxes, Julius Cæsar, Hannibal, Queen

Elizabeth, the Empress Josephine, etc., serve to awaken an interest which will lead the reader to appreciate the larger, more accurate, and more philosophical works of standard historians on the same subjects. Both classes should be included in the school library. A well-written juvenile history of Greece will awaken in the pupil a desire to read Grote. *The Story of the Nations* will prepare the way for an appreciative reading of Motley, Prescott, Irving, Bancroft, Macaulay, and Guizot. To be appreciated by the young, and by the public generally, books of science must be written in popular form. Happily for the youths of the English-speaking world, many of the most eminent scientists of the present day have shown themselves both willing and able to adapt themselves to the comprehension of the average reader, in the popularization of scientific knowledge.

Condensation is a desideratum in this busy age, and the English "primers" of science, literature, and art (so called because of their condensed form) will constitute a very valuable addition to any high school library. Among these "primers" may be mentioned Gladstone's *Homer*, Dowden's *Shakspeare*, Peile's *Philology*, Fyffe's *History of Greece*, Creighton's *History of Rome*, Wendel's *History of Egypt*, Geikie's *Geology*, Lockyer's *Astronomy*, Jevons' *Political Economy*, Tighe's *Development of the Roman Constitution*, etc.

In literature, the English classics for school use, which have been mentioned previously, cover almost the entire range of standard English authors from Shakspeare to Tennyson. Compilations of literature, such as Shepherd's *Historical Readings*, Skinner's *Readings in Folklore* and *The Schoolmaster in Literature*, Swinton's *Studies in English Literature*, etc., present within single volumes of convenient size and moderate expense a wide range of selections.

Books of practical instruction on subjects relating to the household and on simple forms of manual training should belong to the school library. Such are *Household Economy*, the *Sewing Primer*, the *Sloyd System of Woodworking*,

Exercises in Woodworking, Principles of Agriculture, Scientific Agriculture, etc.

As to selections of books of fiction, Gail Hamilton's suggestions are pertinent :

"The mind cannot long preserve its balance, if forced to subsist on any one kind of food ; how much less if that food be largely adulterated. If we must have a diet composed chiefly of sugarplums, let us at least have them from established factories, where we may be sure of a good article of its kind, and not content ourselves with a sickly concoction of sugar, flour, and water, simmered together in a thousand kitchen kettles. The lords and ladies of Waverley, the men and women of Thackeray, Trollope, Mrs. Stowe, Miss Muloch, or George Eliot would be a great improvement on the interminable procession of Hatties and Katies and Nellies and Georgies and Willies and Harries that now mince their missish ways over the library shelves.

"It is said that they (the children) will read such books as they have, and others they will not read. Of course it is of no use to cumber our shelves with books that will never be touched. Little children must have little stories, and larger children must have larger stories, and the supply only answers to the demand. But if the argument holds good with regard to Sunday-school books, it holds still better with regard to novels.

"I shall, however, be slow to believe that the children of Christian parents cannot be educated into higher tastes. If this unsubstantial but highly seasoned food were withheld from them, I cannot but think they would presently come to a healthy appetite. If they turn away from wholesome bread and butter and cry for tarts and jelly, let them cry till they are hungry, and then the bread and butter will have a fair chance of being appreciated."

In the matter of the "little stories" for the "little children," public opinion has undergone a notable change within recent years. There have been, and still are, many persons

who object on conscientious grounds to the reading of fairy stories and fables by young children; but the number of such persons is far smaller now than in years gone by. Leading educators are almost unanimous in their opinion of the value of certain stories of this description in the moral training of the little ones.

In his materials for moral lessons (see White's *School Management*), Dr. E. E. White mentions first among his "fairy and other classic tales" the stories of Cinderella (representing true worth) and Red Riding Hood (representing obedience to parents). Almost every classic fable has a strong and pointed significance which will appeal to the moral nature of the child. Thus the fable of the lark and the farmer illustrates self-reliance; that of the ant and the grasshopper, improvidence; that of the donkey in the lion's skin, pretension, etc. A large number of fairy tales and other stories should be related by teachers to small pupils. Dr. White recommends that longer narratives of the same general description, such as the stories of Hans Christian Andersen and of Grimm, be read by pupils at their homes.

It would seem strange that any thoughtful person should consider immoral the exercise of the God-given faculty of imagination. The harmful effects of dwarfing the imagination of children are vividly set forth in the "Gradgrind system" of education as depicted by Dickens in *Hard Times*. It would be well, indeed, for every parent and teacher to read that work of the great patron and lover of childhood.

Libraries and Bookcases.—Where the school collection of books is small, and is kept in a room devoted to general purposes, it should be kept in a closed bookcase and, so far as possible, secure from dust and from dampness.

For the larger libraries of graded schools, a suitable room should be set apart. The room need not be large, but it should be conveniently located and well appointed. The books should be screened from the direct rays of the sun. The floors (of hard wood, closely driven) should be bare

or covered only with rugs, which can be removed and thoroughly shaken in the open air. The doors and windows should shut closely, so as to exclude dust and dampness.

The bookcases should not be of such a height as to render the upper shelves difficult of access. Short and not very wide bookcases can be arranged back to back, at right angles to the wall, along one side of the room. The opposite wall may afford convenient space for the display of historical and scientific charts, maps, etc., and of suitable pictures.

Where the room is properly kept, there is no real necessity for doors to the bookcases, and these are apt to prove inconvenient and troublesome. Whatever arrangement be made as to the custodian of the library — whether that office be assigned to a teacher or to one of the older pupils — only a careful and competent person should be in charge of the room.

If there is a reading room for the use of pupils, it should generally be separate from the apartment in which the books are contained. The bookcases should be designated by letters, the shelves by numbers. Thus B 3 would indicate the third shelf of the second case. The books should be arranged by topics. In many school libraries patent covers are used on the books. These are inexpensive and easily adjusted. Within the volume there should be a "book pocket," to contain the membership card, on which the issuing of the volume is recorded. The membership card should contain on the reverse side the regulations concerning the books.

Library Catalogues. — There are various forms of catalogues for libraries. It is highly important that there be a classified list of books, arranged in respect to topics, so that one who wishes to investigate any subject may see at a glance what books in the library relate to it. A classified catalogue, moreover, offers a graphic suggestion to the librarian as to the subjects in which his list is deficient.

An alphabetical catalogue of the books, under the names of the authors or editors, is also highly desirable. Both the classified and alphabetical lists can be printed in book form

or on long cards, for convenient reference. Where the list is not very long, the card catalogues are generally preferred.

A third plan for a catalogue is that of card slips. A wooden box or drawer, without a cover, is filled with cards of the size of ordinary envelopes, which fit into it like envelopes in a box, except that the box or drawer is shallower, so that the cards can be easily taken up. Beginning with the first card, and proceeding in the regular alphabetical order of the authors' names, the titles of the books are written upon the several cards (one on each), together with any matter of special interest in reference to the book—its relation to any other works, the edition, etc.

In a card slip catalogue of this sort, various independent parts of a single volume are given upon separate cards. In the case of such a work as *Seven American Classics*, a part of the book containing selections from any one of the seven authors—Irving, Cooper, Bryant, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Whittier, and Holmes—is catalogued separately. This is apt to make the card slip system rather cumbrous, but it proves, in the end, a great saving of time and trouble.

As the cards are frequently consulted, they will be occasionally replaced (even by careful persons) in a wrong order, unless this is prevented by some practical device to secure a return to their proper place in the case. A favorite plan is to have a slot cut in each card, so that the entire number can be strung upon wires or rods. The slot should be cut near to the bottom of the card, and should be long enough to permit the card to be raised for convenient reading, after the wire is strung through it and fastened upon the ends of the box or drawer. The cards should be very loosely strung, to leave room for the fingers to pass in picking them up.

In many details of its management, the teacher or superintendent in charge of a considerable school library will profit by a visit to some city library for the purpose of studying its workings.

A New Profession. — The care of libraries is now recognized as a distinct profession. There are at the present time various excellent schools for the training of librarians. In these, every subject relating to the interests of the reading public is studied in detail. As a result, there is now a more general consensus of opinion than at any previous time in respect to the real character and value of the books in the market; also in respect to plans of library buildings, modes of classifying, preserving, and distributing books; and whatever else pertains to libraries and publications.

Ambitious girls are entering this profession in every State, for it offers an excellent field for woman's work. Boys, too, are looking with interest upon the rise of the new profession. The management of a modest school library will offer an excellent preparation for a library course.

In the selection of suitable books, the teacher will find the opinions of library experts very valuable, for there are few books in our language which have not been passed upon by competent library critics.

The reckless provision of books of questionable character for the use of children is disappearing under the higher criticism of library experts, and authors of juvenile books in the future will find themselves under restrictions unheard of hitherto. From being perhaps the most careless nation in the world in the matter of reading for the young, we may soon change to the most critical and careful. The books of the future which are professionally "approved" under the high standard of the later librarians must be of the best that can be written.

In the matter of a school library, the true modern teacher will make his influence felt. He will leave his impress upon the community by aiding to secure wholesome literature for the pupils, and by encouraging in them habits of systematic reading — the reading which "maketh a full man." If the teacher fails to do this, he leaves unperformed one of the most important of his duties.

CHAPTER IX

SCHOOL MORALS

To what extent are morals taught in the public schools? How can the parent coöperate with the teacher in the moral training of the children? Should there be a definite effort to impart instruction in morals?

Moral Training in the Schools. — These are questions which will be discussed in this chapter. There are many persons who will say that there should be no attempt to impart instruction in morals, since, as they aver, this is not the province of the school. They confound moral training with religious instruction, and fear that it means the inculcation of sectarian doctrines. These persons are not numerous. The idea that instruction in morals means the performance of a religious ceremony is dropping very rapidly out of sight.

The divorce between Church and State has been followed largely by the nonobservance of religious rites in secular employments. The great majority of the people recognize the fact that moral training can be inculcated without religious instruction, except that religion is understood to be the foundation of all sense of obligation; for we understand morality to be a sense of the obligation which one person owes to his fellow, to society, and to himself.

There is a large number of teachers who believe in what they call "moral training." It should occupy, they conceive, fifteen minutes of each school session, and the time on the programme assigned to "Opening Exercises" is de-

voted to it daily, or perhaps several times every week. This "moral training" consists in the reading of a story to impress, perhaps, a lesson of kindness. Or it may be that patriotism, honesty, benevolence, or bravery is the theme. Then a song is sung — perhaps *Kind Words Can Never Die*. It may be that a chapter of the Bible is read, without comment, and a short prayer is offered. All this is beautiful, and, in the hands of the tactful teacher, may be made strikingly impressive, and may bear good fruit in better lives.

Other teachers there are, who do not give the subject any thought at all. They conceive their duty to be ended when they have duly carried out the set recitations of the programme, and have done all they can do to impart instruction in the branches they have engaged to teach.

We believe that both these classes lose sight of the deeper fact that, whether they will it or not, there is a training in morals going on all the time in their school-rooms. It would be well, indeed, that they should realize the fact; for when once awakened to it, they can be conscious, instead of unconscious, factors in the development of a moral atmosphere which will have a lasting influence on the plastic souls of the children.

Let the teachers continue the beautiful stories, if they like. It is well that they do this. Any story that will strike a responsive thrill will give an impulse towards the ideal of the tale. Any charming narrative of kindness displayed toward the brute creation will have its softening influence on hard, cruel tendencies of young souls. Any description of scenes where nobility of character is displayed in showing reverence for gray hairs will awaken to thoughtfulness the indifferent carelessness which is the cause of young people's forgetting so often to do the little act of kind courtesy that would warm a mother's heart or bring to the eyes of the neglected and distressed stranger the tears of gratitude. These exercises may bear fruit in beautiful deeds that will make the world brighter.

But it should be remembered that the training of the morals is certain to go beyond the fifteen minutes of the opening exercises. The tender emotions awakened by the beautiful story and stirred by the sweet song will have no effect on character unless followed by some definite act of the will. Indeed, in some respects it is better not to have resolved at all than to have resolved and then made no effort to carry out the resolution. If the tale of kindness leads the child to abstain from cruelty, it has wrought a lasting good. If the story of patriotic fervor has awakened a thrill at the sight of the flag, it has not been wasted. It is insisted that morality is a training of the will and a formation of habits, rather than a knowledge of theoretical principles.

The Teacher's Responsibility.—The school is one of the greatest forces that can be wielded in the moral training for citizenship. It stands next to, and in some points ahead of, the family. The teacher—every teacher—is, of course, aware of the fact that his own life and actions are having their effect on the destinies of his pupils. Every teacher is conscious of the fact that his tastes and modes of thought are molding theirs; so must his bearing and habits affect theirs.

The teacher feels this strongly at times, I think, and he must have a sense of it always. If he has flippant notions of life, if he regards it as a great jest, many a boy will come to look upon it in the same way. If his view is a morbid one, if he is a lugubrious pessimist, he will have no greater immediate effect, perhaps, on the sunny brightness of youth than a sudden shower on an April morning. The dire influence of his blighted life may make its appearance later.

The Discipline of the School.—But it is not only the teacher's personal influence that I wish to emphasize at this time; it is of the influence of the school as an institution that I would speak. The mechanical discipline of the school has a great weight in moral training. The teacher who is lax

in discipline is doing a far greater injury to the child than is seen in the interference with proper study and recitation work. "Mechanical virtues," says Dr. Harris, "are indispensable as an elementary basis of character." What an admirable place is the school for acquiring these virtues. For example, there is the virtue of obedience. The school demands obedience, and the acquired habit of rendering it means obedience to parents; it means obedience to employers and officers in after life; it means obedience to civil law and authority; it means obedience to the law of God.

Punctuality is one result of this habit of obedience. The child is taught to be prompt in going to school. The disposition to be idle, the careless use of his moments, the morning nap, must give way to the habit of observing the particular point of time when it is his duty to do a specific thing. This law of punctuality governs the whole life of the school. Recitations must begin promptly, and end as promptly. There can be little idling or attending to other business than that which is in hand.

The power of self-control is strengthened by refraining from doing that which will disturb others. The pupil's obedience to the law of the school should lead him to be as quiet as possible, in order that he may not interfere with the work and comfort of others. He should be led to see that his resistance of the desire to chatter and gossip with his fellows will result in a great and wholesome good in after life. It will keep him, perhaps, from opening his mouth frequently when he has nothing to say. It will do more: it will lead him unconsciously to observe the rights of others, and so will lay the foundation of the very important social virtue of courtesy.

Further, the pupil will be led into habits of industry. The definite assignment of a certain amount of work daily will prove the best training in habits of work. Nothing can be better than the taking up, each day, of a definite programme of work and accomplishing it. The effects of this

discipline will last far beyond the school life of the pupil. Industry will become a fixed habit. The teacher who is lax in his effort to secure these important "mechanical virtues," does an incalculable injury to the child.

Parents can render great assistance to the teacher by so arranging the duties of the household that there may be no interference with the law of the school. In this they will be doing their children a greater service than they may realize. They can make it their care to see that there is regular attendance on the part of the pupils. The arrangement of the household which permits the child to be punctual one day should become the permanent arrangement, so that he may be punctual every day.

Moreover, the parent should assist the teacher by seeing that the allotted tasks for home study are performed. He must see that, in doing this, he is assisting in the great influence of the school in favor of habits of systematic industry. There are interests at stake other than the child's progress in knowledge — interests which are perhaps weightier. Foundations of character are laid, that will affect his destiny through life. Are not the "little things" worthy of the careful attention of the parents? Should they not be insisted upon by every teacher?

Social Duties of School Children. — On the other hand, the teacher must not be a tyrant in his school. There must be no police system of surveillance, nor cruel exercise of authority. They will produce a brood of cheats and hypocrites. The children must themselves realize the law of the school, and must feel that it is their duty and privilege to be punctual, regular, and courteous to other pupils and to the teacher.

The habit of refraining from noise, as a matter of courtesy, rises above the plane of the habits inculcated by the machinery of the school. It is more than a mechanical art. It involves consideration for others — the relation of man to man; and so is really a social duty. In this and in other

ways the school does instill these higher duties which make moral fiber.

The pupil's regard for himself and for his fellows will cause him to pay attention to his person. It will induce him to be cleanly and tidy—to brush his teeth, his hair, and his clothes; to keep his hands and face clean, and his nails presentable. It will keep him from intemperance in eating; it will be a check upon intemperance in speech; and it will restrain him from the use of slang, and from obscenity and profanity.

The school should be the training school of all forms of courtesy. It should inculcate all that is meant by good breeding. It should teach respect for the opinions of others. It should teach the child to see the good points of others, rather than their faults. The personal influence of the teacher will have its effect here, more than in any other particular.

Truth telling is another social duty which is strongly emphasized in the good school. The teacher who will compel his students to search out the exact truth of the matter under investigation, and who will then insist that the result of the investigation be told in exact language, clearly, and without any misrepresentation arising from inexact and careless use of words, is affording an exercise in truth telling, which goes far deeper than the subject matter of the lesson.

Honesty of purpose, uprightness, and integrity are all fostered under the teacher who sees that lessons are carefully prepared and carefully recited, and who notes what pupils are deserving, respectively, of commendation and of reproof.

Respect for Law.—Concerning the teacher's respect for law, Dr. W. T. Harris remarks: "The school, when governed by an arbitrary and tyrannical teacher, is a demoralizing influence in a community. The law-abiding virtue is weakened, and a whole troop of lesser virtues take their flight and give

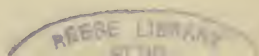
admittance to passions and appetites. But, on the other hand, the wise and just teacher will teach respect for law very thoroughly.

"A great change has been wrought in the methods of discipline in later years. It is clear that with frequent and severe corporal punishment it is next to impossible to retain genuine respect for law. Only the very rare teacher can succeed in this. Punishment through the sense of honor has, therefore, superseded for the most part, in our best schools, the use of the rod. It is now easy to find the school admirably disciplined and its pupils enthusiastic and law-abiding—governed entirely without the use of corporal punishment."

The teacher has a far greater responsibility than that of imparting a knowledge of the binomial theorem or Latin case endings. He is responsible for a law in the school which will train the pupil rightly along the lines indicated above, and which will make him a law unto himself. The whole aim of education is self-culture. Culture consists in standing above the present moment, and in seeing the remoter good; it consists in seeing in things all that is really in them, including their relation to each other and to the universe of God; it consists in realizing our responsibilities and seeing before us our ideal.

Higher than the habits absorbed unconsciously by the pupil in his mechanical performance of the requirements of the school; higher than the sense of social duties of punctuality, courtesy, and respect for authority, are the lofty virtues which the true teacher will impart by a spirit of true kindness pervading his school. Consideration, gratitude, friendliness, benevolence, toleration, patriotism, tenderness, charity, and kindred virtues will all swell the hearts of the impressionable children, and will be mighty factors in the development of true men and women.

This spirit of true kindness can hardly live where envy and personal hatred are fostered by the pernicious custom



of offering medals and prizes for successful work. Pride, envy, and selfishness are surely opposed to the cardinal virtues mentioned above, and not much else results from the prize system.

To sum up: since we see that the school is certain to have a powerful influence in the moral training of children, does it not seem that it rests with the teacher what sort of training it shall be? The teacher who will inspire habits of punctuality, regularity, and self-control; of courtesy, honor, and respect for law; of kindness, toleration, and patriotism; of tenderness, forgiveness, and humility — must *himself* be punctual, regular, and self-contained; must be courteous, and honorable, and have respect for authority; must be kind, tolerant, patriotic, tender, forgiving, and humble. Then will he be able to give his pupils that which will enable them to help themselves. He will impart that moral vigor which will cause them to be good for the sake of being good.

VI

SCHOOL ETIQUETTE

SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS AND
OBSERVANCES

CHAPTER X

SCHOOL ETIQUETTE

The Meaning of Etiquette.—The word *etiquette* signified originally a label, designating the contents of a parcel. The *etiquette* revealed at a glance the nature of the package upon which it was placed. So now, in a more general sense, it may be said that the character of the man is designated by his bearing towards others, and by his observance of those common rules of conduct which add very largely to the sum total of human happiness. This is etiquette in the modern sense, in which the word is used throughout this chapter. The true foundation of all etiquette is a spirit of kindness and courtesy. Every one requires training in the proprieties of social life.

Forms differ in many respects in the various countries, and often in different localities of the same country. The members of the House of Commons in England wear their hats during the sessions. This would be deemed a gross impropriety in an American Congress or Legislature. In the city of Washington, it is the custom for newcomers to make the first calls; while in other cities the rule is the reverse of this. In the main, however, the rules of polite society are essentially the same in the enlightened nations.

The Importance of Etiquette.—There are many who underestimate the importance of etiquette, and who regard the social usages of representative society as in the nature of affectation. This is a grave error. A regard for social usages has much to do with success in life. Men sometimes

succeed without it; yet where some succeed, many fail because of their lack in this respect.

Americans have not a flattering reputation in other countries, in respect to politeness, though all the world admires their enterprise, courage, and generosity. The statesmanship of American diplomats at the courts of the world has been universally recognized; but some of these distinguished men have been remembered in society for unfortunate social blunders which, though seemingly trifling in themselves, were to be regretted, to say the least. Many a young man of ability has been handicapped in the race for honor and fame by not having learned what the usages of good society require. Young men not superior in other qualifications have outstripped him in the race because they had in mind and practiced at all times those little kindly courtesies which custom demands.

A country in which the highest political and social positions are open to all should be, of all countries, one in which social culture is universal. In homes of refinement, children acquire it unconsciously. Unfortunately, in many homes the proprieties of life are often violated, and politeness is deemed a luxury to be reserved for strangers and for formal occasions. Among the members of such households there is a lack of cheery greetings, of apologies for little errors, and thanks for little favors, of delicacy in matters which affect the sensibilities, and of gentleness in word and deed. Even children most fortunate in their home surroundings may acquire coarseness of manner from their contact with the ill-mannered during the susceptible period of school life.

The Influence of Example. — In the school the manners of children are molded or, at least, influenced in a large degree. The teacher should be a pattern of deportment. Example is the most effective teacher. Even the servants of the really refined are apt to exhibit a better deportment than citizens of influence whose ideas of propriety have been acquired only in a theoretical way.

Etiquette not a Mere System of Forms.—By “school etiquette” is not meant a mere system of forms to be observed in the schoolroom. The spirit of etiquette is not to be limited to any room or place. True politeness springs from the heart. If the spirit of kindness and courtesy reigns in the individual, it will need only a few thoughtful suggestions here and there to guide specifically the outward conduct in the school, in church, in the parlor or office, or on the street.

Formerly it was deemed necessary for public libraries to have conspicuously posted placards requesting gentlemen to remove their hats on entering. This is now generally discontinued, as an unneeded precaution, though we may still frequently see on street cars a printed request to passengers to keep their feet off the seats. Sometimes teachers post in their halls printed rules of propriety to be observed. Generally it will be found better to inculcate politeness in another way.

Facial Expression.—The expression of the countenance is an index to the spirit of the individual. “On entering a school,” says Gow, “and examining the faces of the pupils, we are unconsciously drawn to some and repelled by others. Whence comes this difference? Looking around, we discover here a face wearing a pleasant but not affected smile, while there sits one that cultivates a habitual frown, whose mouth and brows are rough, with a coarse expression of unloveliness. Here is one that bears a bright, intelligent countenance; he is a student, a thinker. There is one whose face never lights up with emotion. He does not care to learn. Here is one that wears a silly simper, that is ready to laugh at the slightest occasion, indicating a vacant, trifling character. Here is one who is full of affectation, whose mouth is moving in pretense of study, but whose eye is watching to see whether he is observed. Here is one who affects coarseness, who is abrupt and rude, whose manner indicates respect neither for himself nor others. And there is a coward, who takes

advantage of his teacher. Injustice may be done sometimes in thus forming an estimate of character from appearances. Yet as a rule we may distinguish intelligence, gentleness, and kindness from ignorance, coarseness, and brutality, by an inspection of the countenance. Habits of mind are stamped upon the face. This is true even of animals. The heart and mind educate the features to express what they suggest."

Manner of Speaking. — Politeness is indicated by the tones of the voice, as well as by the words employed. "What a wonderful power," says Gow, "the sweetly modulated accents of a fine voice exert upon the ear; and with what a charm they invest its fortunate possessor! Good or bad impressions are made upon us, not only by what people say, but by the tones used in conversation. We feel attracted or repulsed by a person's voice before we have heard fully what he has to say. Habits of thought are indicated to a great degree by habits of expression, as he who is habitually ill-natured will give expression to his thoughts in ill-natured tones. Some young people have a fashion of drawling their words; others speak with amazing rapidity. Some deliver their thoughts in a high, squeaking key; others utter short, low, growling tones. Some speak so softly that they are heard with difficulty; while others are loud, boisterous, and harsh. All these varieties of utterance indicate a want of culture. Good society demands that we make ourselves as agreeable as possible, and nothing serves to make a better first impression than a carefully trained voice. Politeness requires that we speak clearly, distinctly, and always loud enough to be easily heard, without being boisterous and rude. A whispering style of expression is annoying; a boisterous manner is vulgar."

Propriety of Speech. — The use of pure, correct language and the avoidance of slang and of coarseness in speech are exceedingly desirable. The employment of stilted speech and the parading of a knowledge of foreign terms are highly

objectionable. On the other hand, the use of but a limited vocabulary, insufficient for the distinctions which a cultivated person should make in his use of words, is not to be commended.

Politeness in words is one of the most important lessons to learn. It excludes gross familiarity, even among intimate friends, and it forbids all remarks of a nature to wound the feelings. Often it is violated thoughtlessly, and from mere force of habit. How frequently do we hear, in a neighborhood, such characterizations as "old Mrs. Jones," "the widow Smith," etc. Yet the habitual designation of individuals by their age or afflictions is not agreeable to the sensitive, and should not be encouraged.

"Never say an ill-natured thing, nor be witty at the expense of any one present, nor gratify the inclination, which is sometimes very strong in young people, to laugh at and ridicule the weaknesses or infirmities of others, by way of diverting the company."

Topics of conversation should be chosen with due respect for the tastes of the persons present. Egotism and false modesty are to be alike avoided. Heated discussions should be shunned, and likewise all remarks likely to lead to them; there must always be, of necessity, a wide difference of opinion on most questions. When it becomes evident that a discussion is distasteful to any of the company, a person of tact will quickly change it.

Politeness requires that the speaker shall turn his face directly to the person addressed, and that the latter shall look directly at the speaker. Interruptions in conversation are impolite. While nothing but the truth should ever be spoken, the truth itself is not always to be told, particularly of the absent. It must be remembered that a half-told truth often bears the suggestion of a falsehood; and in all remarks which one person makes concerning another, the speaker should have a care to observe not only exact justice, but also to exercise a spirit of charity and kindness.

Forms of Address.—To address others respectfully is a practice which no cultured person will neglect. "The poor people," says Miss Mitford, "are always nice judges of behavior." The aged are apt to be sensitive as to the manner in which they are addressed.

Happily, we have in America no system of hereditary rank, with its complicated titles and forms of address, such as obtains in many nations. Republican institutions favor a sense of manly and womanly self-respect; and the courtesy which we expect from others we ourselves should be certain to practice in all our intercourse with others and in all our references to them.

As a nation we have been charged—perhaps justly—with a fondness for titles. It is a false idea of etiquette which prompts the bestowal of these upon persons who have no rightful claim to them. It has been humorously related that a gentleman standing upon a wharf once called out "Good-by, Colonel," to a friend upon the deck of a departing steamship, and that his salutation was answered by every gentleman upon the deck. Military titles won in the service of our country, and certain other titles of office, are apt to be remembered affectionately by the people; and their continued use in address is by no means improper. It is only their indiscriminate and meaningless employment that is objectionable.

It is claimed that the title *Professor* has been much abused. Formerly it was restricted to specialists in the various departments of learning, and applied to those who filled chairs of special instruction in colleges. It has become far more general in its application. As a result, a number of colleges have been led to discard it altogether. There are those who apply the title without discrimination to school officers and teachers of all grades, and there are others who never employ it. There seems to be no good reason why a distinction in the mode of address should be made between instructors in collegiate institutions and other educators, equally capable,

who are engaged in the service of the public schools. While this title should not be applied to those who object to it, or to young and inexperienced teachers, it may be used with propriety in addressing instructors of recognized attainments, especially elderly men in the profession who have attested their claims to respect as representative educators.

Deportment upon the Street. — A graceful carriage in walking is well worth the care of acquiring. One should not walk too rapidly, nor should he saunter lazily along. The habit of stooping when standing or walking is inelegant, and leads to a deformity of the body. Those who stand and walk erect in their earlier years will not so soon become bowed by age. The toes should turn outward. The steps should be of even length. A swinging gait and all forms of ungraceful carriage should be avoided.

Persons passing each other in the street should turn to the right. When a gentleman is walking with a lady, he may keep to the outside of the sidewalk in case there is liability to annoyance from teams, etc., in the street; otherwise, it is preferable for him to walk at the left of the lady. A gentleman should never take a lady's arm. He may offer his arm to a lady with whom he may be walking in the evening; and in the daytime, also, in any place of danger (as when the walk is slippery), or of inconvenience (as when the street is obstructed by a crowd). A gentleman recognized on the street by a female acquaintance should lift his hat politely, and make a respectful bow. The motion should not be "jerky" or self-conscious. From long habit it may become so natural as to be involuntary.

"Young people should always be prompt to acknowledge the politeness of those who notice them," says Gow. "They should never speak to their superiors first, as it might be construed as a mark of pert familiarity; but when a lady or gentleman wishes to salute them, they should respond with a pleasant 'good morning' or 'good evening,' as the case may be, accompanied by an agreeable smile. It is

expected that a lady will always recognize the gentleman first; a girl the boy; and as a rule, the superior, the inferior in age or station. When young men or boys meet their superiors in age and station, or those of the other sex, who recognize them, they should always lift their hats politely and make a respectful bow."

The Deportment at the School. — The conduct of boys and girls on the school grounds and in the halls of the school building, where they are under less restraint than in the schoolroom, is a test of their gentlemanly and ladylike character. It is not a universal custom, even in representative colleges, for students to remove their hats on entering the halls. This is customary, however, in many colleges and schools, and is to be encouraged, as an act of gentlemanly propriety. A sense of delicacy will lead boys to precede girls in ascending stairways, and to give them the precedence in descending. Boisterousness in the halls is inadmissible, whether within or without the hours of the school session. Where gentlemanly and ladylike instincts prevail in the pupil, they will not fail to manifest themselves at all times and places.

Care for Articles of Value. — A spirit of forwardness often leads young persons to take liberties with the property of others, and especially with public property. A want of care in respect to articles of taste and delicacy is a common result of a lack of familiarity with them. There is an educational value in tasteful and elegant appointments of a schoolroom. Where the pupil is not trained to use these properly, the results of this default soon become noticeable. Books of the school library—sometimes rare and valuable—are returned with leaves turned down and otherwise injured. Costly globes are ruined by the touch of many hands. Pianos and other furniture of polished surface are disfigured by finger marks and scratches. Dictionaries and other books for general use have their leaves soiled by the marks of wet thumbs. Valuable apparatus

is rendered utterly worthless by meddlesome handling. Organs and other musical instruments sustain injury from untrained players. Specimens in mineralogical cabinets are carelessly broken, and rendered worthless, by pupils ignorant of their value. Instances like these might be multiplied indefinitely. A little suggestion here and there from the teacher will do much to correct their pupils of such faults as those indicated, which spring not from malice or willfulness, but from a want of proper training.

At public art reviews in cities there are often many visitors who are ready to touch with finger, pencil, or even with cane or umbrella, the valuable paintings on exhibition, and who are prevented from so doing only by the watchfulness and care of the custodians. Such visitors should have learned better manners in school, if not at home.

Correspondence. — Correspondence, like conversation, is a test of the refinement of the writer. The subject is generally treated, to a limited extent, in books of composition and rhetoric, and pupils are cautioned against improprieties in the form and address of letters. Neatness in appearance, and accuracy and completeness in the address, are important considerations. Inks of unusual colors are to be avoided, as are envelopes of peculiar shape and style. The use of the word *city* in place of the name of the city is objectionable. Such legends as "Courtesy of Mr. ——" or "Kindness of Miss ——" are falling into disuse. The superscription should be not only neat and legible, but also sufficient and specific.

Letters add much to the pleasure and to the pain of human life. Words thoughtlessly written often cause wretchedness where no unkindness is intended. Imprudent letters of young people often result in mortification to the writers. Candor, courtesy, and simple dignity should characterize the correspondence of boys and girls. The teacher's influence and example in all that relates to letter writing will not be lost upon his pupils.

Deportment at Meals. — The proprieties of eating are of very great importance. Few persons who disregard these are aware of the discomfort they cause to their companions who have had the benefit of more careful training. In many schools there are pupils who reside at a distance from the schoolhouse, and who bring luncheons with them. All should possess such a knowledge of proper conduct at meals as will enable them to be companionable to one another on such occasions. This knowledge will be of value to them through life, and will enable them to derive greater enjoyment from their social relations. Every repast should be seasoned with good humor. Sociability is an aid to the digestion. The napkins of adults should be held in the lap, and not tucked into the collar or buttonhole. Only small children require a napkin upon the breast.

In the mastication of food the lips should be kept closed. Rapid eating is not only harmful, but also offensive. The food should be slowly and thoroughly masticated, and should be eaten noiselessly. The smacking of the lips is disgusting. Bread and cake should be broken, and not cut or bitten from the slice. The napkin may be used to wipe the lips, but not as a handkerchief to wipe the face. The elbows should be kept near the body, and no one should lean or rest upon the table. Drinking at meals should be very moderate in amount, but a few swallows at a time. Tea or coffee should not be poured out to be drunk from a saucer. The teaspoon should not be left in the cup, but at its side, in the saucer. Drinking, like eating, should be noiseless.

The knife, fork, and spoon should be used gracefully, and not rudely grasped. Food that can be eaten with the fork should not be eaten with the spoon. The knife should not be used to convey food to the mouth. Coughing, spitting, blowing the nose, stroking the hair, etc., are highly improper at meals, and can be generally avoided. These simple principles of behavior, and many more which will readily occur to the teacher, should be inculcated in the minds and habits

of boys and girls. Most children are ready and willing to learn what is proper.

Care of the Person.—Neatness of person and attire are matters which should receive constant and careful attention. The face, neck, and ears, and the hands and wrists require frequent washing and brisk rubbing. The nails should be regularly trimmed, and the finger-tips cleansed with a nail-brush. Teeth that are not regularly brushed are offensive, and are apt to become carious. The hair should be carefully combed and brushed.

The clothing, whatever its quality, should be kept clean by frequent brushing. Boots and shoes require especial care in order that they may be presentable; they should be kept well polished and free from dust and mud. The linen should be frequently changed. Soiled cuffs and collars detract greatly from the appearance. The hat should not be abused or neglected. If dark in color, it will show dust easily. The following verses from a poem by Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes contain sensible hints upon the subject of dress:

“ From little matters let us pass to less,
And lightly touch the mysteries of *dress*;
The outward forms the inner man reveal,
We guess the pulp before we eat the peel.
One single precept might the whole condense —
Be sure your tailor is a man of sense;
But add a little care, or decent pride,
And always err upon the sober side.
Wear seemly gloves; not black, nor yet too light,
And least of all the pair that once was white.
Have a good hat. The secret of your looks
Lies with the beaver in Canadian brooks.
Virtue may flourish in an old cravat,
But man and nature scorn the shocking hat.
Be shy of breastpins: plain, well-ironed white,
With small pearl buttons — two of them in sight,
Is always genuine, while your gems may pass,
Though real diamonds, for ignoble glass.”

Gow's *Morals and Manners* reproduces from an old periodical for boys and girls an anecdote illustrative of the impression produced and the influence exerted by good manners in dress and in conduct. It is as follows:

A gentleman advertised for a boy to assist him in his office, and nearly fifty applicants presented themselves to him. Out of the whole number he, in a short time, selected one and dismissed the rest.

"I should like to know," said a friend, "on what ground you selected that boy, who had not a single recommendation?"

"You are mistaken," said the gentleman; "he had a great many. He wiped his feet when he came in, and closed the door after him, showing that he was careful. He gave up his seat instantly to that lame old man, showing he was kind and thoughtful. He took off his cap when he came in, and answered my questions promptly and respectfully, showing he was polite and gentlemanly. He picked up the book which I had purposely laid on the floor, and replaced it on the table, while all the rest stepped over it, or shoved it aside; and he waited quietly for his turn, instead of pushing and crowding, showing that he was honest and orderly. When I talked with him I noticed that his clothes were carefully brushed, his hair in nice order, and his teeth as white as milk; and when he wrote his name, I noticed that his finger nails were clean, instead of being tipped with jet, like that handsome little fellow's in the blue jacket. Don't you call those things letters of recommendation? I do; and I would give more for what I can tell about a boy by using my eyes ten minutes than for all the fine letters he can bring me."

Washington's Rules of Civility. — The earliest manuscript that is preserved of Washington's papers is a writing book of thirty pages, in which, at about the age of fourteen years, he copied a large number of maxims of deportment, entitled *Rules of Civility*.

These simple exercises are an index to the character and habits of the Father of his Country. To his unfailing courtesy and consideration for others was due much of his great success in life. Apart from the lively interest which the *Rules of Civility* possess, as a memorial of the youth of so eminent a character in the history of the world, they are generally valuable as a guide for the manners and morals of the youth of to-day.

In the following "rules," selected from the exercise book of Washington's boyhood, the spelling, capitalization, and punctuation have been changed somewhat, to correspond with modern usage. The language itself is quaint at times, though always plain in its meaning and simple in its construction:

1. Reproach none for the infirmities of nature, nor delight to put them that have in mind thereof.

2. Show not yourself glad at the misfortune of another, though he were your enemy.

3. Superfluous compliments and all affectation of ceremony are to be avoided, yet where due they are not to be neglected.

4. They that are in dignity or in office have in all places precedence; but whilst they are young they ought to respect those that are their equals in birth or other qualities, though they have no public charge.

5. Let your discourse with men of business be short and comprehensive.

6. In writing or speaking, give to every person his due title, according to his degree and the custom of the place.

7. Do not express joy before one sick or in pain, for that contrary passion will aggravate his misery.

8. Wherein you reprove another, be unblamable yourself; for example is more prevalent than precepts.

9. Be not hasty to believe flying reports to the disparagement of any.

10. Run not in the streets, neither go too slowly nor with mouth open. Go not shaking your arms, stamping, or shuffling; nor pull up your stockings in the street. Walk not upon the toes, nor in a dancing or skipping manner, nor yet with measured steps. Strike not the heels together, nor stoop when there is no occasion.

11. Eat not in the streets, nor in the house out of season.

12. Associate yourself with men of good quality if you esteem your own reputation; for 'tis better to be alone than in bad company.

13. Let your conversation be without malice or envy, for 'tis a sign of a tractable and commendable nature; and in all causes of passion, admit reason to govern.

14. Speak not of doleful things in a time of mirth or at the table; speak not of melancholy things, as death and wounds; and if others mention them, change if you can the discourse. Tell not your dreams, but to your intimate friend.

15. A man ought not to value himself of his achievements or rare qualities, his riches, titles, virtue, or kindred; but he need not speak meanly of himself.

16. Speak not injurious words, neither in jest nor earnest. Scoff at none, although they give occasion.

17. Detract not from others, neither be excessive in commending.

18. Reprehend not the imperfections of others, for that belongs to parents, masters, and superiors.

19. Gaze not at the marks or blemishes of others, and ask not how they came. What you may speak in secret to your friend, deliver not before others.

20. Speak not in an unknown tongue in company, but in your own language.

21. Think before you speak. Pronounce not imperfectly, nor bring out your words too hastily, but orderly and distinctly.

22. When another speaks, be attentive yourself and disturb not the audience. If any hesitate in his words, help him not nor prompt him without desired; interrupt him not, nor answer him till his speech be ended.

23. While you are talking, point not with your finger at him of whom you discourse, nor approach too near him to whom you talk, especially to his face.

24. Treat with men at fit times about business, and whisper not in the company of others.

25. Be not apt to relate news if you know not the truth thereof. In discoursing of things you have heard, name not your author always. A secret discover not (reveal not).

26. Be not tedious in discourse or in reading, unless you find the company pleased therewith.

27. Be not curious to know the affairs of others, neither approach to those that speak in private.

28. Undertake not what you cannot perform, but be careful to keep your promise.

29. In disputes, be not so desirous to overcome as not to give liberty to each one to deliver his opinion; and submit to the judgment of the major part, especially if they are judges of the dispute.

30. Be not tedious in discourse; make not many digressions, nor repeat often the same manner of discourse.

31. Drink not, nor talk, with your mouth full, neither gaze about you while you are drinking.

32. Be not angry at table, whatever happens; and if you have reason to be so, show it not. Put on a cheerful countenance, especially if there be strangers; for good humor makes one dish of meat a feast.

33. When you speak of God or His attributes, let it be seriously, and with words of reverence. Honor and obey your natural parents, although they be poor.

34. Let your recreations be manful, not sinful.

35. Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire called conscience.

36. In the presence of others, sing not to yourself with a humming noise, nor drum with your fingers or feet.

37. If you cough, sneeze, sigh, or yawn, do it not loud, but privately; and speak not in your yawning, but put your handkerchief or hand before your face, and turn aside.

38. Sleep not when others speak; sit not when others stand; speak not when you should hold your peace; walk not when others stop.

39. When you sit down, keep your feet firm and even, without putting one on the other or crossing them.

40. Read no letters, books, or papers in company; but when there is a necessity for the doing of it, you must ask leave. Come not near the books or writings of another so as to read them, unless desired, or give your opinion of them unasked; also, look not nigh when another is writing a letter.

41. The gestures of the body must be suited to the discourse you are upon.

CHAPTER XI

SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS AND OBSERVANCES

General Holidays and School Celebrations. — It is a very common saying that Americans, as a people, have too few holidays; that the routine of our lives is not sufficiently broken by periodical celebrations and observances of a national character. We enter generally and heartily into the spirit of Thanksgiving and Independence days, deriving much good from them; and it is claimed that there should be more such days in our calendar. Certain State holidays have been instituted within recent years, with a view to supplying this supposed need. It is difficult for one part of a community engaged in business or labor to arrange for a holiday unless the observance be general, since the cessation of one form of industry is apt to cause serious inconvenience to others; for the activities of the business world are closely related one to another.

The school, however, is not so connected with the industrial world as to be limited to the observance of general holidays and commemorative occasions. In the school, the celebration of certain days may involve no real loss to the school work, but only a pleasing change in its form. An alternation of different forms of labor is always restful, and may be very profitable. Often the school celebration affords an opportunity for the particular form of training which the pupil most needs. The exercises of the celebration or observance may be of various length, sometimes taking the place of a single recitation, and at other times lasting through several class periods.

Authors' Birthdays. — The celebration of the birthdays of notable American authors by appropriate exercises of a special character in the public schools has been of incalculable good. Such variations from the routine of the school lend a charm of variety to the pupil's work, while (since they are easily arranged, and require little time for their preparation) they do not seriously interrupt or detract from the regularity of study and recitation. The influence of these school celebrations is to develop in the pupils a strong spirit of patriotism and of nationality, as well as to lead them to a better acquaintance with, and appreciation of, our literature.

Such occasions are exceedingly interesting, and have a tendency to enlist to a greater degree the attention of the community to the school work. Generally they attract to the schoolroom many who would not otherwise visit it; and none can fail to derive new inspiration from them. While the most enjoyable and profitable exercises of this character are those of the high schools of cities, and of the advanced grades in the rural schools, the observance of authors' birthdays may be extended, in simpler and briefer form, to the lower grades in all schools. Even the smallest pupil will be interested in an anecdote relating to a great American. No single programme of exercises will prove applicable alike to all grades and to all schools. The teacher who prepares the programme for the more advanced grades should arrange it for the general participation of his pupils. A few pieces of music may be rendered by individual pupils, or by quartets, but the greater number of songs should be sung by the school. A few essays of some length may be prepared, but brief recitations or anecdotes should be given by the majority of the pupils.

Presentations of Portraits. — It is desirable that schools be supplied with pictures, and portraits of American authors are especially appropriate for this purpose. Pictures are generally procured for schoolrooms by voluntary contributions of money in small amounts. No better occasion for

the addition to the schoolroom of such a treasure can be presented than that of the author's birthday. If the portrait be procured in advance, its presentation to the school can be made a very pretty and graceful incident of the celebration. The pupils may select one of their number to make a brief address of presentation, and the teacher may respond to it, or may appoint some person present (a school officer would be a very suitable person for this) to receive the portrait in the name of the school.

The music for such occasions should be national and patriotic; and it is especially appropriate to select any songs relating to the author in whose honor the celebration is held.

Suggestions for Longfellow's Birthday.—Among the more popular of Longfellow's short poems are *The Village Blacksmith*, *Excelsior*, *The Arsenal at Springfield*, *Seaweed*, *The Day is Done*, *The Builders*, *The Jewish Cemetery at Newport*, *The Golden Milestone*, *The Children's Hour*, *Robert Burns*, *Paul Revere's Ride*, and *The Bells of San Blas*. The last-mentioned was his last poetical composition. These and many others are admirably adapted for school recitations.

From the longer poems may be taken extracts of some length. Brief paragraphs and stanzas may be selected from both the long and the short poems of this author for general exercises in recitation. Following are a few of these, and the number may be easily extended by any teacher.

Ships that pass in the night, and speak each other in passing,
Only a signal shown and a distant voice in the darkness;
So on the ocean of life we pass and speak one another,
Only a look and a voice, then darkness again and a silence.

— From *Elizabeth*.

As torrents in summer,
Half dried in their channels,
Suddenly rise, though the
Sky is still cloudless,
For rain has been falling
Far off at their fountains;

So hearts that are fainting
 Grow full to o'erflowing,
 And they that behold it
 Marvel, and know not
 That God at their fountains
 Far off has been raining !

— From *The Saga of King Olaf*.

This is the forest primeval ; but where are the hearts that beneath it
 Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the
 huntsman ?

Where is the thatch-roofed village, the home of Acadian farmers, —
 Men whose lives glided on like rivers that water the woodlands,
 Darkened by shadows of earth, but reflecting an image of heaven ?
 Waste are those pleasant farms, and the farmers forever departed !
 Scattered like dust and leaves, when the mighty blasts of October
 Seize them, and whirl them aloft, and sprinkle them far o'er the ocean.

— From *Evangeline*.

But why, you ask me, should this tale be told
 To men grown old, or who are growing old ?
 It is too late ! Ah, nothing is too late
 Till the tired heart shall cease to palpitate.
 Cato learned Greek at eighty ; Soph'ocles
 Wrote his grand *Oed'ipus*, and Simon'ides
 Bore off the prize of verse from his compeers,
 When each had numbered more than fourscore years,
 And Theophras'tus, at fourscore and ten,
 Had but begun his *Characters of Men*.
 Chaucer, at Woodstock with the nightingales,
 At sixty wrote the *Canterbury Tales* ;
 Goethe, at Weimar, toiling to the last,
 Completed *Faust* when eighty years were past.
 These are, indeed, exceptions ; but they show
 How far the gulf-stream of our youth may flow
 Into the arctic regions of our lives,
 Where little else than life itself survives.

— From *Moritu'ri Saluta'mus*
 (We who are about to die salute you).

Turn, turn, my wheel ! The human race,
Of every tongue, of every place,
Caucasian, Coptic, or Malay,
All that inhabit this great earth,
Whatever be their rank or worth,
Are kindred and allied by birth,
And made of the same clay.

— From *Ker'amos*.

Silently, one by one, in the infinite meadows of heaven,
Blossomed the lovely stars, the forget-me-nots of the angels.

— From *Evangeline*.

Slowly as out of the heavens, with apocalyptical splendors,
Sank the City of God, in the vision of John the Apostle,
So, with its cloudy walls of chrysolite, jasper, and sapphire,
Sank the broad red sun, and over its turrets uplifted
Glimmered the golden reed of the angel who measured the city.

— From *The Courtship of Miles Standish*.

“Thank God,” the Theologian said,
“The reign of violence is dead,
Or dying surely from the world ;
While love triumphant reigns instead,
And in a brighter sky o’erhead
His blessed banners are unfurled.
And most of all thank God for this :
The war and waste of clashing creeds
Now end in words, and not in deeds ;
And no one suffers loss, or bleeds,
For thoughts that men call heresies.”

— From *Tales of a Wayside Inn*.

In the elder days of Art,
Builders wrought with greatest care
Each minute and unseen part :
For the gods see everywhere.

Let us do our work as well,
Both the unseen and the seen ;
Make the house, where gods may dwell,
Beautiful, entire, and clean.

— From *The Builders*.

Happy he whom neither wealth nor fashion
 Nor the march of the encroaching city
 Drives an exile
 From the hearth of his ancestral homestead.

We may build more splendid habitations,
 Fill our rooms with paintings and with sculptures;
 But we cannot
 Buy with gold the old associations.

— From *The Golden Milestone*.

The mighty pyramids of stone
 That wedge-like cleave the desert airs,
 When nearer seen, and better known,
 Are but gigantic flights of stairs.

The heights by great men reached and kept
 Were not attained by sudden flight,
 But they, while their companions slept,
 Were toiling upward in the night.

— From *The Ladder of St. Augustine*.

A number of Longfellow's poems have been set to music. Among these are *The Bridge*, *The Rainy Day*, *The Old Clock on the Stairs*, *A Psalm of Life*, *The Reaper and the Flowers*, and *Into the Silent Land*.

Some Notable Birthdays. — The following brief list of the birthdays of notable American authors will be found convenient for reference. For the birthday of Hawthorne, which occurs at a time when the schools are closed, can be substituted some convenient day of the school year:

January 11, 1825	Bayard Taylor.
February 22, 1819	James Russell Lowell.
February 27, 1807	Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.
April 3, 1783	Washington Irving.
April 15, 1814	John Lothrop Motley.
May 4, 1796	William Hickling Prescott.
May 25, 1803	Ralph Waldo Emerson.
June 14, 1812	Harriet Beecher Stowe.

July 4, 1804.	Nathaniel Hawthorne.
August 29, 1809	Oliver Wendell Holmes.
October 3, 1800	George Bancroft.
November 3, 1794.	William Cullen Bryant.
November 29, 1832	Louisa M. Alcott.
December 17, 1807	John Greenleaf Whittier.

Birthdays of American Statesmen.—The observance of birthdays of noted Americans need not be limited to those of authors. In fact, it is highly desirable that some such school observances relate to eminent statesmen, especially to those who impressed their character and their wisdom upon our nation in its formative period. So many are the illustrious names of American statesmen, that care must be taken to select only the most notable of these. Men now living should be excluded from the list.

The birthday of Washington, the Father of his Country, is now a legal holiday in forty-two States. That of Lincoln, the Emancipator, has been legalized as such in Illinois. The birthday of Webster, the Expounder of the Constitution, has been observed in many schools within recent years, and so has that of Franklin, the statesman and philosopher. Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence, is worthy of commemoration in like manner.

The essays prepared for such occasions should be largely of an historical character. The salient points of the careers of these statesmen should be brought out. These should form the topics of separate compositions, in order that the subjects may be divided among a number, and select paragraphs should be read from notable and appropriate public documents.

Suggestions for Washington's Birthday.—From a variety of programmes which have been followed in many schools on the occasion of Washington's birthday, the following is here reproduced, not as a model to be implicitly followed, but as offering suggestions which may be utilized in arranging the exercises in a variety of forms:

PROGRAMME FOR WASHINGTON'S BIRTHDAY.

Song by the school or by a quartet — *Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean.*

Essay of four minutes — Washington's Childhood.

General Exercise — *Washington's Rules of Civility.* (These, being brief, can be distributed among a considerable number of pupils, who may rise and repeat them at their seats, in the order of numbers drawn by them from a basket of number cards.)

Essay of four minutes — Washington's Military Career.

Instrumental Music — *Yankee Doodle*, with Variations.

Essay of four minutes — Washington as a Statesman.

General Exercise — Estimates of Washington's Life and Character. (Brief extracts upon this subject from standard works, including Byron's tribute in his *Ode to Napoleon*, and paragraphs from the eulogies of orators and the summaries of historians and biographers.)

Instrumental Music — *President's March*, or song by the school — *Hail Columbia.*

Select Readings — The Battle of Trenton, and Washington at Princeton, from Ford's *Poems of History.* (For these may be substituted any other suitable poems relating to Washington's career.)

Song by the School — *The Grave of Washington.*

General Exercise — Selected paragraphs from *Washington's Farewell Address.*

Song by the School — *America.*

Suggestions for Lincoln's Birthday. — For the celebration of Lincoln's birthday, the following "leaflets" have been used by many schools. They may be supplemented by additional selections from the notable utterances of Lincoln. The exercises should be interspersed with appropriate music.

LINCOLN LEAFLETS

I

Two tall and beautiful monuments, rising from the soil of Illinois, one by the Sangamon river and one by Lake Michigan, are of special interest to students of American history. They mark the last resting places of the two great statesmen on whom was centered the attention of America — and indeed of the civilized world — in the years immediately preceding the great war. Douglas triumphed over Lincoln in 1858, and Lincoln triumphed over Douglas in 1860. They were personal friends. The issues on which these statesmen were arrayed belong wholly to the past. They were squarely presented and earnestly debated, and were decided, as American issues must be, by the people. All concede the greatness and the goodness of President Lincoln, and his name is far removed from the divisions and questions of to-day. Teachers and pupils unite in exercises of affectionate remembrance, and repeat the sentiments with which he touched the chords of humanity and spoke to all the future.

II

The most remarkable popular debate in American annals, and in some respects the most remarkable in all history, was that of the Senatorial campaign in Illinois in 1858. The excited interest with which it was attended, its protraction through many weeks and through widely different localities and communities, the rush of many thousands to hear, the endless reproduction in the newspapers of every State, the comments of the millions who practically constituted the audience, the sharply drawn issues, the perfect candor of the debaters (who answered each the most searching questions of his opponent), the momentous character of the conclusions drawn, — all these strange accompaniments ren-

dered the Senatorial canvass in reality a canvass before the Nation and before the world—a canvass which can be likened to no other, and one which predetermined at once the choice of the two champions as standard bearers in the Presidential canvass of two years later.

III

Singularly contrasted were the speakers in the Great Debate. Proud in the consciousness of his powers, matchless in eloquence, small in figure but splendid in the magnetism of his presence, graceful in gesture, cold, self-possessed, and lofty in scorn or glowing in the passion of appeal, was Judge Douglas, the Little Giant, the Senator of a dozen years, the hitherto unchallenged master in the field of controversy. Opposed to him was the Rail Splitter. Six feet three in his stockings, lank and ungainly, unprepossessing of visage save in the kindness of his smile, without art or artificial polish, but with earnestness and solemnity born of the great crisis, with honesty of purpose that none in all the throng could question, and with homely phrases that reached the heart, was Abraham Lincoln, who had dared to challenge the Little Giant to a joint discussion. Answering to the polished oratory of the Senator were the solemn earnestness and the quaint and irresistible humor of this man of the people.

IV

Very remarkable was the political situation in 1858. The Democratic party was rent in twain. At the end of one faction was the Administration. The leader of the other faction was Judge Douglas. Opposed was the young and rapidly growing Republican party,—the old Whig party had gone out of existence. It was thus a three-sided issue, for the Republicans met their divided opponents with a solid front. The positions of the three opposing parties may be stated briefly thus:

It is both the right and the duty of Congress to *recognize* the institution of slavery in the Territories.

— *The Administration Faction.*

It is both the right and the duty of Congress to *prohibit* the institution of slavery in all the Territories.

— *The Republican Party.*

It is neither the right nor the duty of Congress to recognize or to prohibit the institution of slavery in the Territories. The matter must be decided by the people of each Territory for themselves. — *The Douglas Faction.*

In their sentiments the Republicans were no less divided than the Democrats, though they were united in action. "Of strange, discordant, and often hostile elements," said Mr. Lincoln, "we gathered from the four winds." Sentiments held by members of that party in northern Illinois were vehemently repudiated by members in the central and southern parts. To unite in action people of opposing views was the task set before both debaters. Never was presented to public men a greater temptation to equivocate and to play a double part; and yet never was debate conducted with greater candor on both sides. Perhaps never before was the American public so thoroughly instructed upon the real character of the issues to be decided.

V

The Presidential campaign of 1860 was but a continuation of the same debate by the same debaters. To complicate matters still further, a fourth party arose, which was non-committal as to policy, proclaiming as its platform only "the Union, the Constitution, and the enforcement of the laws." A popular majority was impossible under the circumstances. Mr. Lincoln received a *plurality* of the *popular* votes, and a *majority* of the *electoral* votes, and was elected.

VI

The burden of responsibility borne by President Lincoln, the prolonged and terrible war in which he was engaged, the freeing of the slaves, the death of the President in the hour of final victory — all these are matters known to all, and are personally remembered by very many of the people of to-day. President Lincoln's public addresses reveal, more perfectly than description can portray, the character of that remarkable man who stood at the helm of our ship of state through the storm and peril of a gigantic war, of that man of whom his conquered foes have unfeignedly said, "He was our best friend."

VII

"'A house divided against itself cannot stand.' I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved, I do not expect the house to fall, but I do expect it will cease to be divided." — *Address at Springfield, June 17, 1858.*

VIII

"My friend has said to me that I am a poor hand to quote Scripture. I will try it again, however. It is said in one of the admonitions of our Lord, 'As your Father in heaven is perfect, be ye also perfect.' The Savior, I suppose, did not expect that any human creature could be perfect as the Father in heaven. But he said, 'As your Father in heaven is perfect, be ye also perfect.' He set that up as a standard; and he who did most towards reaching that standard attained the highest degree of moral perfection. So I say in relation to the principle that all men are created equal, let it be as nearly reached as we can. If we cannot give freedom to every creature, let us do nothing that will impose slavery upon any other creature."

— *Address at Chicago, July 10, 1858.*

IX

"Now, it happens that we meet together once every year, some time about the 4th of July, for some reason or other. These 4th of July gatherings, I suppose, have their uses. If you will indulge me, I will state what I suppose to be some of them.

"We are now a mighty Nation; we are thirty, or about thirty, millions of people, and we own and inhabit about one fifteenth part of the dry land of the whole earth. We run our memory back over the pages of history for about eighty-two years, and we discover that we were then a very small people in point of numbers, vastly inferior to what we are now, with a vastly less extent of country, with vastly less of everything we deem desirable among men. We look upon the change as exceedingly advantageous to us and to our posterity, and we fix upon something that happened away back, as in some way or other being connected with this rise of prosperity. We find a race of men living in that day whom we claim as our fathers and grandfathers. They were iron men; they fought for the principle they were contending for; and we understood that by what they then did it has followed that the degree of prosperity which we now enjoy has come to us. We hold this annual celebration to remind ourselves of all the good done in this process of time, of how it was done, and who did it, and how we are historically connected with it; and we go from these meetings in better humor with ourselves, we feel more attached the one to the other, and more firmly bound to the country we inhabit. In every way we are better men, in the age and race and country in which we live, for these celebrations. But, after we have done all this, we have not yet reached the whole. There is something else connected with it. We have, besides these men—descended by blood from our ancestors—among us, perhaps half our people, who are not descendants at all of these

men; they are men who have come from Europe—German, Irish, French, and Scandinavian—men that have come from Europe themselves, or whose ancestors have come hitherto and settled here, finding themselves our equals in all things. If they look back through this history to trace their connection with those days by blood, they find they have none; they cannot carry themselves back into that glorious epoch and make themselves feel that they are part of us. But when they look through that old Declaration of Independence, they find that those old men say, ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal,’ and then they feel that that moral sentiment, taught in that day, evidences their relation to those men, that it is the father of all moral principle in them, and that they have a right to claim it as though they were blood of the blood, and flesh of the flesh, of the men who wrote that Declaration. And so they are. That is the electric cord in that Declaration that links the hearts of patriotic and liberty-loving men together, that will link those patriotic hearts as long as the love of freedom exists in the minds of men throughout the world.”

—*Address at Chicago, July 10, 1858.*

X

“I hold that there is no reason in the world why the Negro is not entitled to all the natural rights enumerated in the Declaration of Independence—the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. I hold that he is as much entitled to these as the white man. I agree with Judge Douglas, he is not my equal in many respects; certainly not in color, perhaps not in moral or intellectual endowment. But in the right to eat, without the leave of anybody else, the bread which his own hand earns, he is my equal and the equal of Judge Douglas, and the equal of every living man.” — *The Great Debate; Ottawa, Aug. 21, 1858.*

XI

"I think the authors of that notable instrument (the Declaration of Independence) intended to include *all* men, but they did not mean to declare all men equal *in all respects*. They did not mean to say all men were equal in color, size, intellect, moral development, or social capacity. They defined, with tolerable distinctness, *in what* they consider all men are created equal — equal in certain inalienable rights, among which are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. This they said, and this they meant. They did not mean to assert the obvious untruth that all were then actually *enjoying* that equality, or that *they* were about to *confer* it immediately upon them. In fact, they had no power to confer such a boon. They meant simply to *declare the right*, so that the enforcement of it might follow as fast as circumstances should permit. They meant to set up a standard maxim for free society, which should be familiar to all; constantly referred to, constantly labored for, and even, though never perfectly attained, constantly approximated, and thereby constantly spreading and deepening its influence and augmenting the happiness and value of life to all people, of all colors, everywhere."

— *The Great Debate ; Alton, Oct. 15, 1858.*

XII

"A duty devolves upon me which is perhaps greater than that which has devolved upon any other man since the days of Washington. He never could have succeeded except for the aid of Divine Providence, upon which he at all times relied. I feel that I cannot succeed without the same Divine aid which sustained him; and on the same Almighty Being I place my reliance for support. And I hope that you, my friends, will all pray that I may receive that Divine assistance, without which I cannot succeed, but with which success is certain." — *Farewell Speech at Springfield, Feb. 11, 1861.*

XIII

"I am but an accidental instrument, temporary and to serve for a limited time; and I appeal to you to constantly bear in mind that with you, and not with politicians, nor with Presidents, nor with office seekers, but with *you* is the question, 'Shall the Union and shall the liberties of this country be preserved to the latest generations?'"

— *Bates House Speech at Indianapolis, Feb. 11, 1861.*

XIV

"I have often inquired of myself what great principle or idea it was that kept this Confederacy so long together. It was not the mere matter of the separation of the colonies from the motherland, but that sentiment in the Declaration of Independence which gave liberty not alone to the people of this country, but, I hope, to the world for all future time. It was that which gave promise that in due time the weight would be lifted from the shoulders of all men. This is the sentiment embodied in the Declaration of Independence. Now, my friends, can the country be saved upon that basis? If it can, I will consider myself the happiest man in the world if I can help to save it. If it cannot be saved upon that principle, it will be truly awful. But if this country cannot be saved without giving up that principle, I was about to say that I would rather be assassinated on this spot than surrender it."

— *Address at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Feb. 21, 1861.*

XV

"Why should there not be a patient confidence in the ultimate justice of the people? Is there any better or equal hope in the world? In our present differences is either party without faith of being in the right? If the Almighty Ruler of Nations, with His eternal truth and justice, be on

your side of the North or on yours of the South, that truth and that justice will surely prevail, by the judgment of this great tribunal of the American people."

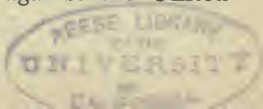
— *First Inaugural Address, March 4, 1861.*

XVI

"In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. The government will not assail you. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in Heaven to destroy the government, while I have the most solemn one to 'preserve, protect, and defend' it. I am loath to close. We are not enemies, but friends. We must not be enemies. Though passion may have strained, it must not break our bonds of affection. The mystic chords of memory, stretching from every battle field and patriot grave to every living heart and hearthstone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched, as surely they will be, by the angels of our better nature." — *First Inaugural Address, March 4, 1861.*

XVII

"Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power vested in me as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose to do so proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days, from the first day above mentioned, order and designate as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof are respectively this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, etc.



“And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be, free; and that the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons. . . .

“And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind and the favor of Almighty God.”

— *Proclamation of Emancipation, Jan. 1, 1863.*

XVIII

“The world will little note nor long remember what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for *us*, the *living*, rather, to be dedicated here to the unfinished work they have thus far nobly carried on. It is rather for *us* to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to the cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that the Nation shall, under God, have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.”— *Gettysburg Cemetery Dedication, Nov. 19, 1864.*

XIX

“With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness to do the right as God gives us to see the right, let us strive to finish the great work we are in, to bind up the Nation’s wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle and for his widow and his orphans; to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.”

— *Second Inaugural Address, March 4, 1865.*

XX

TOM TAYLOR'S TRIBUTE TO LINCOLN¹

You lay a wreath on murdered Lincoln's bier,
 You, who with mocking pencil went to trace,
 Broad for the self-complacent British sneer,
 His length of shambling limb, his furrowed face,

His gaunt, gnarled hands, his unkempt, bristling hair,
 His garb uncouth, his bearing ill at ease,
 His lack of all we prize as debonair,
 Of power or will to shine, of art to please;

You, whose smart pen backed up the pencil's laugh,
 Judging each step as though the way were plain,
 Reckless, so it could point its paragraph
 Of chief's perplexity, or people's pain.

Beside this corpse, that bears for winding sheet
 The stars and stripes he lived to rear anew,
 Between the mourners at his head and feet,
 Say, scurrile jester, is there room for *you*?

Yes: he had lived to shame me from my sneer,
 To lame my pencil, and confute my pen;
 To make me own this hind of princes peer,
 This rail splitter a true-born king of men.

¹ It is a remarkable fact that this noble poetical tribute to Lincoln was composed in a foreign land, and was published in a comic paper. Tom Taylor, of the London *Punch*, had made the great President a target for his shafts of ridicule, and had poured forth an unceasing stream of sarcastic detraction in prose, in verse, and in pictorial caricature. When the end came, this famous jester laid aside his fun and, rising to the dignity of the occasion, laid this immortal wreath on murdered Lincoln's bier.

My shallow judgment I had learned to rue,
Noting how to occasion's height he rose;
How his quaint wit made home truth seem more true;
How, iron-like, his temper grew by blows.

How humble, yet how hopeful, he could be;
How, in good fortune and in ill, the same;
Nor bitter in success, nor boastful he,
Thirsty for gold, nor feverish for fame.

He went about his work — such work as few
Ever had laid on head and heart and hand —
As one who knows, where there's a task to do,
Man's honest will must Heaven's good grace command;

Who trusts the strength will with the burden grow,
That God makes instruments to work his will,
If but that will we can arrive to know,
Nor tamper with the weights of good and ill.

So he went forth to battle, on the side
That he felt clear was Liberty's and Right's,
As in his peasant boyhood he had plied
His warfare with rude Nature's thwarting might;

The uncleared forest, the unbroken soil,
The iron bark, that turns the lumberer's axe,
The rapid, that o'erbears the boatman's toil,
The prairie, hiding the mazed wanderer's tracks,

The ambushed Indian, and the prowling bear, —
Such were the deeds that helped his youth to train:
Rough culture, but such trees large fruit may bear,
If but their stocks be of right girth and grain.

So he grew up, a destined work to do,
And lived to do it; four long-suffering years,
Ill fate, ill feeling, ill report, lived through,
And then he heard the hisses change to cheers,

The taunts to tribute, the abuse to praise,
And took both with the same unwavering mood;
Till, as he came on light, from darkling days,
And seemed to touch the goal from where he stood,

A felon hand, between the goal and him,
Reached from behind his back, a trigger prest,
And those perplexed and patient eyes were dim,
Those gaunt, long-laboring limbs were laid to rest!

The words of mercy were upon his lips,
Forgiveness in his heart and on his pen,
When this vile murderer brought swift eclipse
To thoughts of peace on earth, good will to men.

The Old World and the New, from sea to sea,
Utter one voice of sympathy and shame:
Sore heart, so stopped when it at last beat high;
Sad life, cut short just as its triumph came!

A deed accurst! Strokes have been struck before
By the assassin's hand, whereof men doubt
If more of horror or disgrace they bore;
But thy foul crime, like Cain's, stands darkly out.

Vile hand, that brandest murder on a strife,
What'er its grounds, stoutly and nobly striven;
And with the martyr's crown crownest a life
With much to praise, little to be forgiven.

Other Notable Birthdays.—Less formal and extended notice may be taken of the birthdays of other eminent statesmen. Since there is a risk of loss to the regular work of the school from too frequent and formal exercises of a commemorative character, it is best to attempt in any one year the observance of but a few such days.

Where a general participation by the school is not found desirable, classes in history may profitably mark by special studies and recitations the birthday of Henry Clay, the great Pacificator; of Jackson, who boldly met the issue of Nullification; of Monroe, who promulgated the "Monroe Doctrine"; of John Quincy Adams, who maintained in Congress the Right of Petition; of Garfield, the statesman and scholar, and of others.

In the following brief list, which will be found convenient for reference, are given the dates of birth of some of the leading statesmen of America:

January 6, 1811	Charles Sumner.
January 11, 1757	Alexander Hamilton.
January 17, 1706	Benjamin Franklin.
January 18, 1782	Daniel Webster.
February 12, 1809	Abraham Lincoln.
February 22, 1732	George Washington.
March 15, 1767	Andrew Jackson.
March 16, 1751	James Madison.
April 2, 1743	Thomas Jefferson.
April 12, 1777	Henry Clay.
April 27, 1822	Ulysses S. Grant.
April 28, 1758	James Monroe.
July 11, 1767	John Quincy Adams.
November 19, 1831	James A. Garfield.

School Flags and Flag Days.—The use of school flags is growing in popularity. It is the boast of many counties in various States that all or nearly all the schools which they contain are supplied with this beautiful emblem of our country.

The judicious use of the flag can be made very interesting

to the pupils, impressing upon their minds the significance of great events in the history of our nation and race. It has been the thought of some teachers to have flags displayed over their schoolhouses while the schools are in session, irrespective of any special significance of the day as an anniversary. Many prefer to display the flag only on days important because of their association with historical events. This will impress those events more strongly upon the mind of the pupil.

Flags are of all sizes and of various prices, and there is no community that cannot afford a flag of some sort for the use of its school. As an emblem of the nation's authority and power, the flag should be treated with respect under all circumstances. It may be committed to the custody of competent and faithful pupils. The honor of being a flagman in a school or a color-bearer in a procession is one which should be sought by the pupils and earned by meritorious conduct. The flag should be raised and lowered at regular and stated hours; it should not be exposed to inclement weather, nor should it be left flying at night.

Suggestions for Flag Presentation Day. — Everything relating to the history of the flag is of interest to Americans; and a very interesting programme of exercises can be arranged for the occasion of the presentation of the flag to the school, and for its first unfurling to the view of the school and the community. From the time when the flag is accepted, the observance of flag days may enter into the exercises of the school to a greater or less extent, as circumstances may suggest or permit. If there be little time for any extended notice of the anniversary celebrated by the hoisting of the flag, there can be, at least, a brief reference to it by the teacher in his morning exercises, and the pupils can be encouraged to read about the event commemorated and its significance in history. Often, however, there will be found time for the reading of some suitable poem and the singing of some patriotic song in honor of the day.

In a programme for the first flag celebration the banner itself will naturally be the principal theme. The history of the flag may be divided into a number of parts, to serve as topics for brief essays. Poems and songs relating to the flag may be rendered, each being introduced by a brief statement in reference to the author, and perhaps also to the circumstances under which the composition was written. The address on the presentation of the flag to the school should be well prepared, and spoken rather than read. Sometimes the presentation is made by a patriotic society, or by individuals not connected with the school. In any case, the event is likely to be long remembered, and the opportunity should be improved by a suitable expression of appreciation of the present.

What constitutes an American Flag. — It may seem a singular fact that there is no authoritative specification of the proportions of the American flag. There must be thirteen alternating stripes of red and white, with a “quartering” of blue containing a white star for each State of the Union. The “quartering” implies simply that the blue field shall occupy a space in the upper inner corner. The flag should be at least one half longer than its breadth measures. Generally its length is somewhat more than this.

The Significance of the Colors. — Red, which is designated as *gules* by heralds, is employed in their art to typify courage and strength. White, or *argent*, as it is sometimes designated, symbolizes purity and innocence. It represents silver, and in pictures of flags the silver itself is sometimes used for the stars and for six of the stripes. Blue is the symbol of truth, constancy, and sincerity.

Material of the Flag. — Flags are made of various materials. Sometimes these are elaborated with great elegance, and costly silks are used, with braid and fringe of gold and silver. The favorite material for large flags is bunting, a light, loosely-woven woolen fabric which will not crease by folding, and which floats gracefully on the air.

The American Shield. — Akin to the flag is the shield of the national colors, which may be used with fine effect in the decoration of the schoolroom, either as a joining of evergreen festoons upon the walls, or independently as a wall ornament to be placed between or above the doors and windows. The shield may be of various shape. The upper part is blue, and contains the stars, while the lower portion is occupied with alternating perpendicular stripes of red and white.

All are familiar with the national shield. Generally this is represented as borne, or “supported,” by an eagle, which flies with outstretched wings, bearing in one of its talons a bundle of arrows and in the other the olive of peace, while in its bill is held a scroll with the motto *E Pluribus Unum* (Out of the many, the one). The invention of this striking device was a remarkable departure from precedent in heraldry, since in all previous devices of like character the “supporters” of the shields — whether figures of men or of beasts — were represented as resting upon the earth.

Shields can be easily constructed of pasteboard, and covered with paper stripes, field, and stars. Silver paper may be used in lieu of white, if preferred.

Care of the Flag. — A well-made flag of good materials will last a long time, if properly cared for. A canvas case, in which to inclose it when it is not in use, is generally desirable. The flag should not be laid away when damp. If lent for any purpose, its prompt return should be insured. In the proper care of this beautiful symbol, the pupil will learn a lesson of responsibility and trust.

The Origin of the Flag. — Early in the Revolutionary War, the Americans used a yellow flag, on which was painted a rattlesnake, coiled for springing, together with the warning words, “Don’t tread on me.” The flag displayed by the Americans at Bunker Hill was blue, quartered with a white field, which contained a red cross and the picture of a pine tree.

On the 14th of June, 1777, the American Congress provided that the flag of the United States should consist of thirteen stripes, alternately red and white, with thirteen white stars in a blue field, representing a new constellation.

In 1794 the number of stripes was increased to fifteen; and two more stars were added, in order that these might correspond in number to the States of the Union. It became apparent, however, that many new States would be added to the Nation, and that the plan of providing an additional stripe for each would result in making the flag too wide or the stripes too narrow.

In 1818 the Government adopted the present plan, which is to have the original thirteen stripes, with a star for every State in the Union. This flag was first unfurled on the Fourth of July, in the same year. The number of stars is now forty-four. In the war for the Union, the Federal Government did not recognize the secession of any State as legal, and no star was erased from its banner.

Music and Literature Relating to the Flag. — It is an interesting fact that the well-known song, *The Star Spangled Banner*, was composed, at least in part, in the midst of a furious battle, and on a ship of the enemy. When the British bombarded Fort McHenry, on the Chesapeake, near Baltimore, in 1814, Francis S. Key, a young American, was held a prisoner on board the man-of-war that was seeking to destroy the defenses of the city. He was exposed to death from the guns of his own friends, yet he was most solicitous to see the Americans succeed. Amid the furious cannonading he watched anxiously through the night, to note at every flash of light whether the flag was still flying over the fort, or whether it was lowered as a signal of surrender.

“ And the rocket’s red glare,
The bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof, through the night,
That our flag was still there.”

All can appreciate the thrilling interest with which, throughout the hours of darkness, he asked himself the question:

“ Oh, say, does the star spangled banner yet wave ? ”

There are many beautiful and popular songs which relate to our national emblem. Among these are *The Red, White, and Blue*; *Our Bright Starry Banner*; *How it Marches, the Flag of the Union*; *Our Banner Bright*; *Our Flag is Here*; *Flag of the Heroes*; *Rally Round the Flag*; *Hoist up the Flag*; *Fling Out the Banner*, etc.

One of the most stirring of all the poems relating to our national ensign is *The American Flag*, by Joseph Rodman Drake. Its author, a citizen of New York, died in 1820, at the early age of twenty-five. This was the young patriot's last poem, and was written when he was stricken with mortal illness. It begins thus:

“ When Freedom from her mountain height
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.
She mingled with its gorgeous dyes
The milky baldrick of the skies,
And striped its pure, celestial white
With streakings of the morning light;
Then, from his mansion in the sun
She called her eagle bearer down,
And gave into his mighty hand
The symbol of her chosen land.”

Perhaps the most striking of all the notable utterances of our greatest orator, Daniel Webster, is the following, which is taken from a speech delivered by him in the Senate, January 26, 1830, and which is familiar to all Americans:

“ When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in heaven, may they not see him shining on the broken and dishonored fragments of a once glorious Union;

on States dissevered, discordant, belligerent; on a land rent with civil feuds, or drenched, it may be, in fraternal blood. Let their last, feeble, and lingering glance rather behold the gorgeous ensign of the Republic, now known and honored throughout the earth, still full-high advanced; its arms and trophies streaming in all their original luster, not a stripe erased or polluted, not a single star obscured; bearing for its motto no such miserable interrogatory as 'What is all this worth?' nor those other words of delusion and folly, 'Liberty first, and Union afterwards'; but everywhere, spread all over in characters of living light and blazing on all its ample folds, as they float over the sea and over the land, and in every wind under the whole heavens, that other sentiment dear to every true American heart,—'Liberty and Union,—now and forever,—one and inseparable.'"

Appropriate Flag Days.—The number of historic days to be observed by the unfurling of the flag should depend somewhat upon the advancement of the pupils, and upon other considerations relating to the school. The following suggestive list of suitable flag days can be extended indefinitely by the teacher:

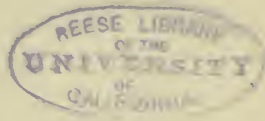
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| January 1, 1863. | The proclamation of emancipation issued by President Lincoln. |
| January 8, 1815. | The battle of New Orleans. |
| February 2, 1848. | The treaty of peace with Mexico, by which the territory of the United States was greatly enlarged. |
| February 23, 1847. | The victory of General Taylor at Buena Vista. |
| February 24, 1779. | The surrender of Fort Sackville, at Vincennes, to Col. George Rogers Clarke, which secured to the United States the region of the Northwest Territory. |
| March 4. | Inauguration Day. |
| April 19, 1775. | The battle of Lexington. |
| April 30, 1789. | George Washington inaugurated first President of the United States. |
| May 13, 1607. | The founding of Jamestown. |

- May 20, 1775. The Mecklenburg (N.C.) Declaration of Independence.
- May 30. Memorial Day. The decoration of soldiers' graves.
- June 15, 1215. Magna Charta (Kar'ta), the great charter of liberty of the Anglo-Saxon race, signed by King John of England.
- July 4, 1776. The signing of the Declaration of Independence.
- September 3, 1783. The Revolutionary War ended by the treaty of Paris, which recognized American independence.
- September 10, 1813. Perry's victory on Lake Erie.
- September 16, 1847. The City of Mexico occupied by the American army under General Scott.
- October 12, 1492. Columbus landed at San Salvador.
- November 25, 1783. The British evacuated New York.
- December 10, 1832. Jackson's proclamation against nullification.

Other School Celebrations. — Of the various forms of school celebrations, Arbor Day has been treated elsewhere in this volume, and suggestions have been made in reference to Commencement Day. Library Day has been instituted in many schools, and contributions have been made by pupils, and by patrons present, for the purchase of library books. Suitable exercises of a literary character form the basis of the programmes on such occasions. It may be well to have these relate in some way to the specific books to be purchased, and to their authors, if the choice of books has been made.

General Holidays. — In addition to the distinctively *school* entertainments which have been discussed in this chapter, should be considered the general holidays which the pupils share with the community, either as individuals, or collectively as a school. Sometimes on public occasions a class, a grade, or the entire school may be assigned some specific and interesting part in the exercises. In such cases, teachers and pupils alike feel responsible for a creditable performance of the part assigned. Sometimes the pupils of a school

visit local fairs or exhibitions in a body, and under the supervision of the teachers in charge. Sometimes they are called to march in procession on occasions of public sorrow or of public rejoicing. At such times the behavior of the pupils is felt to be a credit to the school if order and propriety be maintained, and a cause of just criticism to the school if these be violated. The influence of the school should be felt without the schoolroom, and made apparent in the public test to which it is subjected upon all such occasions.



VII

THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE

CHAPTER XII

THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE¹

The Function of the Institute. — We must assume that our public school service is to be administered, in great part, by young men and women who have made no previous study of the teaching art; and one of the great educational problems of the day is how to promote the professional education of teachers who have entered the public school service with but little or no preparatory training.

I think we may say at the outset that the function of the normal school is to take in hand the training of professional teachers; whereas, the distinctive function of the Institute is to provide some training for non-professional teachers. Those who frequent our normal schools, as a rule, do so with the deliberate intent of making teaching a vocation for a shorter or a longer period; and, at the time when they actually enter upon their duties, they have already learned more or less of their art. The Institute, on the other hand, assumes that very many who are actually teaching, or who propose to teach, have never received a normal school training; and so its special function is to supplement the normal school — to do a little of the work that it should have done, but which it did not have the opportunity of doing.

Military life furnishes an illustration of the distinctive functions of the normal school and the Institute. The professional soldier is educated at West Point; but the exigencies of the country sometimes require the services of large

¹ From Payne's *Contributions to the Science of Education*.

numbers of non-professional soldiers. These volunteers are usually trained for a few days before they see actual service. In camps of instruction they are taught the elements of military tactics, while their training is extended and perfected by active service in the field.

And so we may define an Institute as a normal school with a very short course of study; and we may state its general purpose to be, first, to instruct the prospective, but non-professional, teacher in the elements of his art, and thus to give some extension to his knowledge and skill. In this statement I have sought to indicate the primary and main purpose of the Institute. I do not forget that a secondary purpose should be to stimulate and assist teachers who are further advanced in the theory and practice of their art.

Now, for the sake of clearness, let us inquire what knowledge is needed in order to enter upon the work of teaching with fair hopes of success; what are the elements of professional knowledge; and what part of this work the limitations of the Institute will permit it to undertake.

The First Requisite of the Teacher.—1. It is plain that the very first requisite is a competent knowledge of subjects. The teacher must know how to read, spell, and write, and must have some knowledge of arithmetic, grammar, and geography, as the necessary condition of assisting others in the attainment of this knowledge. It is necessary to insist on this requirement, for two reasons: (1) The doctrine is beginning to prevail that teacher and pupil should move on the same plane, both should be tyros and learners, and that the chief point of superiority on the part of the teacher is his greater mental alertness and persistence. Of course, absolutely speaking, the teacher should be a learner; but, relatively, he should be learned. In geography, for example, his scholarship should not be simply a thing in progress, but a fact accomplished. In the work of the school, teacher and pupil are not coördinate elements. And (2) in our day there is such insistence on method,

as distinguished from scholarship, that we are in danger of underestimating the importance of high scholastic attainments. In the earlier day scholarship was everything, method almost nothing; and the natural recoil from this error has induced an exaggerated belief in method as some substitute for scholarship. I think it cannot be too much insisted on that a school of a given grade should have for its teacher one who has been educated in a school of a higher grade.

The Second Requisite.—After scholarship, the thing of next importance is method. Two teachers of equal attainments may stand to each other in real force as ten to one, the difference being due to high and low qualities of method. I use this term to cover all the processes of the schoolroom,—organization, government, and instruction. Many have not observed the fact that improvement in methods of teaching has been as real, and, perhaps, as rapid, as improvement in the processes of agriculture or of manufacture. There is scarcely a greater difference between gathering grain with a cradle and with a reaper than between the alphabetic and the word method. There is not a single method in schoolroom practice that has not suffered marked revision and improvement within the last twenty-five years. Now, what the Institute is to insist on is, that all teachers under training shall be taught the very best current method of doing the various work of the school.

The Teacher's "Conversion."—So far we have been dealing with the matter and the method of the teacher's outfit; the body, so to speak, of his professional self. But this body must be animated and inspired by a spirit. I am now speaking of something that cannot be articulately described, but of something of which we are all conscious when we think of a real teacher and his work. Grant to the painter his palette, his brushes, his paints, and the formal rules of his art; but, with only these things, he is merely a mechanic. What will transform this mechanic into an artist? Fair

ideals, a divine sense of beauty, and a conception of the possibilities of art. It is only under the domination of this spirit that the artist becomes a creator. Now, what I wish to say is that, by some means, a spirit akin to this must be infused into a body of scholars, in order that they may become teachers. There must be some ideal to serve as the goal of one's effort, some sense of the sacredness and grandeur of the teaching office, and a conception of what is possible through the resources of the teacher's art. This change of spirit and of purpose is so marked that, sometimes, in speaking of it, I have ventured to call it *conversion*.

On more than one occasion I have seen a change of countenance pass over an assembly of teachers as the speaker succeeded in causing his hearers to catch a glimpse of the real nature and the possibilities of the educating art. He who has once ascended a mountain, and thence has surveyed the landscape below, is forever after a changed man. In some real way, but, of course, in a way that cannot be described, so far as spirit is concerned, there has been a transformation, almost a transfiguration. So teachers may be made to survey their work from the summit of a lofty conception; and then, forever after, this work will be done in a new spirit, under a kind of inspiration.

Matter, method, and spirit — these are the three things without which no work in teaching, even of tolerable excellence, can be done. They must accompany all true teaching; and while they form the minimum of one's professional preparation, they are the permanent endowments of the most accomplished teacher. Other elements may be added, but these are constants.

Instrumental and Professional Knowledge. — General knowledge must be regarded by the teacher as instrumental or technical. It is necessary material that he must employ in the practice of his art. But with respect to general scholarship, the teacher cannot be distinguished from the

well-educated man or woman in general; so that while a knowledge of subjects is to the teacher instrumental knowledge, it is not, with strict propriety, professional knowledge. Perhaps we must call it *quasi* professional; though, considering the practical necessities of the case, instruction in subjects must be regarded as a necessary function of the normal school. What is that knowledge, then, which differentiates the teacher from the scholar—which is, with strict propriety, professional knowledge? Method, as described in the last section, is certainly entitled to this designation, but on the ground that it is peculiar knowledge that no one but a teacher must necessarily have. On still higher ground, select portions of psychology are entitled to this designation, for it is chiefly this knowledge that can serve as the rational basis of method. As Mr. Bain says, "*The largest chapter in the science of education is psychological.*"

Psychology, in fact, stands in the same relation to teaching that anatomy does to medicine. The teacher's art is addressed to mind; and if this art is to be rational, if it is to be administered in the scientific or the professional spirit—for these are usually identical—the teacher should know much of the philosophy of mind. We must hold, I think, that there is as good a reason why a professional teacher should have an articulate knowledge of psychology as there is why a physician should have such a knowledge of physiology. That Professor H——, for example, should know the interdependence of sensation, perception, imagination, memory, and judgment, is just as essential as that Doctor Y—— should know the interdependence of lungs, stomach, liver, and brain. There is much of psychology that is merely curious or of general interest, having but very remote and indirect bearings upon the practice of the teacher's art; but there is other matter, of much smaller volume, that is vitally and constantly related to every process of instruction. Some of this knowledge should certainly be communicated to teachers through the agency of the Institute. I hear it said

on all hands that the ordinary teacher is not capable of these high attainments; but whoever will rightly apportion this knowledge, and deftly present it, will discover a growing number of teachers addicted to serious thinking. All admit that teachers *ought* to possess knowledge of this sort, but many are so sceptical of success in trying to communicate it that they abandon the project as hopeless. But, as the sage of the *Tribune* was wont to say, "the only way to resume is to resume." To create an appetite for this kind of knowledge we must in due season and in right measure allow toothsome morsels to fall in the way of those who will have an awakened intellectual appetite.

A Knowledge of Educational Values. — Another kind of knowledge, even more distinctly professional, because falling much further out of the range and the needs of the ordinary student, is what Mr. Bain calls "education values." What is the practical value, say, of arithmetic? Is this value of the primary order, so that every one must study the subject; or is it of secondary value chiefly, so that the knowledge of a few can be sold, and so made to suffice for the needs of the many? As a discipline, is it specific in its effect, *i.e.* does it raise the quality of some special mode of mental action; or is it tonic, *i.e.* does it minister to a general invigoration of the intellectual system? Such questions may be asked of every study; and I hold that it is as reasonable that professional teachers should know these things, as that physicians should know the therapeutical value of calomel and quinine. At least one distinction should be made clear to all who teach — that between the practical value of a subject, and its value for discipline or culture. The subordinate distinctions I have indicated are of very great value, but it is scarcely reasonable to expect that teachers unaccustomed to severe thinking shall understand them sufficiently well to make a sure and safe use of them. The general spirit of the truths I would impress in what has preceded may be expressed in brief, as follows:

The Lines of Study for Teachers. — Teachers should be assisted in the work of perfecting themselves for the duties of their office by being stimulated to self-activity along three main lines of study:

(1) Their knowledge of subjects should be gradually extended. Arithmetic should lead up to algebra and geometry; geography, to travels, history, and political economy; grammar, to rhetoric and criticism; Latin, to French and Italian, etc.

(2) There should be a steady advance in professional knowledge, strictly so-called. In addition to the algebra, the chemistry, and the French grammar, there should be on the teacher's study table a representative educational journal, and the best current books on the theory, the history, and the art of teaching.

(3) To counteract the narrowing tendencies of professional study and duties, it is necessary that the teacher should court the catholic influences of general literature; and, in addition to the books first suggested, his study table should be graced with a representative literary magazine, and with an occasional volume of essays, poetry, or fiction. The aim I have in view is to make the teacher a reader and a thinker, to liberalize his mind with various knowledge, and to secure to him some measure of genuine culture. Taking the teaching class as a whole, I do not know what greater good can be done to it than to inspire it with a love of the scholarly vocation.

In what has now been said, I have tried to express my conception of the aid that should be rendered the great mass of those who are engaged in the public school service. The greater number of these have received no preparatory training of the professional type. In many cases there is great deficiency in general scholarship. In only a few cases, comparatively, is there a confirmed taste for intellectual pursuits; and in still fewer cases is there any degree of that real, though indefinable, thing we call culture. This work,

if done at all, or at least if done directly, surely, and methodically, must be done in part through the agency of the Institute; and we must now study the limitations of this agency, the better to define its special aim and method.

The Limitations of the Teachers' Institute. — The most obvious of these limitations is that of time. The course of instruction in a normal school covers a period of three or four years; but the Institute must do its work within a period of one, two, three, or four weeks. The customary period is one week, or five working days. From this circumstance it becomes apparent at once that a choice must be made between extension and depth. If much is undertaken it must be done superficially; or if thoroughness is the rule, the attention must be limited to a few subjects. This limitation of time affects the method of the Institute with like precision. If class-work be the rule, then the subjects taught will be few, and the progress in each will be slow. If instruction be given by lecture, the range of topics will be greater, and progress apparently more rapid; but the intensive effect will be proportionately light. The whole question of method is reduced in general terms to this: Shall the instructor teach, or shall he lecture? That is, shall he *cause* his pupils to know, or shall he merely *permit* them to know? I do not propose to answer this question at this point. Indeed, it cannot be answered till other conditions have been taken into account.

Another limitation to which the Institute is subject is the unequal proficiency of its membership. I am usually forced to distinguish three classes of attendants: the interested, well-informed, and appreciative few, who can interpret and appropriate the best that can be said; the attentive and willing, but comparatively uninstructed and incapable listener, who, at best, can appropriate only imperfectly, and, in consequence, is always on the verge of weariness and inattention; and the ignorant and the indifferent, who hang like a dead weight on the spirit of the instructor. A skillful

instructor might manage each of these three classes with success if it could be isolated; but to instruct them simultaneously, and with profit, is as difficult a task as can be imagined.

What the Institute is not. — Now, recalling the limitation of time, it must be evident, I think, that the Institute cannot undertake the instruction of teachers in subjects — it cannot give them the matter of instruction. A teacher who comes to the Institute ignorant of geography cannot possibly learn enough of this subject within four weeks to satisfy the requirements of an examiner; and the attempt to repair ignorance in three or four subjects within this period is a palpable absurdity. It must be assumed, I think, that the members of an Institute already have the matter of instruction, and what they most need in this line is a revival of their knowledge.

Profitable and Unprofitable Reviews in Institutes. — A rapid review of the salient points of a subject, or even of several subjects, is quite possible within the period of a week; but this requires the sharp and accurate blows of an accomplished workman. The faults I have most frequently observed in the teaching of subjects are these:

First, there is the aimless talk about a whole subject, vague and pointless, instead of an incisive treatment of a few essential portions of the subject. In arithmetic, for example, instead of attempting to teach the whole subject of Fractions, it would be better to dwell on one or two essential matters, as the relation of numerator to denominator, or an analysis of the process of dividing one fraction by another. And in Percentage, if the teacher can be made to comprehend clearly the meaning of the term *per cent.*, the whole subject will become luminous. In this matter of selection, the term *typical knowledge* will express what I mean.

Another error in Institute instruction is to dwell by preference on what is merely curious, as the casting out of the 9's, the cause of the Gulf Stream, hair-splitting in grammat-

ical analysis, minute subdivisions in elementary sounds, subtleties in pronunciation, and quibbles in general.

An error of a more general nature, an error that is almost a vice, is the complaisant indulging in mere platitudes, in anecdotes, jests, and pleasantries, chiefly as a convenient means of consuming time and of making oneself popular. An anecdote that is a pat illustration is wholly legitimate; it enforces a point in the instruction, and it puts one's auditory in good humor—two excellent things. If we keep in mind the obvious fact that the purpose of the Institute is to instruct rather than to please, but that we may please in order the better to instruct, we shall not be likely to fall into errors on this point.

To recapitulate, the utmost that an Institute of a week, or even of two weeks, can undertake to do in subject matter, is a rapid review of the typical or more important topics; in a session of four or six weeks this review can be more extended and more minute.

The More Distinct Purpose of the Institute. — Assuming, as I think we must, that those who attend the Institute have a considerable mastery of subject matter, and that the most that can be done in this line is review and revival, we find that the more distinctive and characteristic purpose should be to impress upon teachers the general nature of each subject, and the best methods of instructing and governing. In other words, the Institute is true to its proper function in so far as it is instrumental in communicating professional knowledge, properly so-called. I will take a very simple case to illustrate what I mean. Why should a child be taught to read? In teaching primary reading, what is the problem the teacher has to solve? How is the new (printed) vocabulary related to the old (spoken)? What methods have been used to teach children this new vocabulary? Which method shall we select, and on what ground shall we base our choice? What knowledge does a child need in order to name new words for himself?

Professional Instruction.—Systematic instruction in the line of these questions seems to me typical of the best work that an Institute can do. In the best sense, it is professional work in one of its phases. It gives teachers a knowledge of the agencies at their command, and so makes possible the facile and versatile use of these instruments. In giving instruction of this kind I think the following order should be observed:

The purpose for which the subject is taught; its nature, as shown by a proximate analysis; and a rational method of presenting the subject. Instruction in geography, for the purposes of an Institute, might then take this form:

(1) The purpose of geographical study is to produce in the pupil's mind a vivid conception of the earth as the dwelling-place of man.

(2) The unit of study is the earth, considered chiefly with reference to its surface. This unit is so vast, and the most of its surface so remote, that the greater part of the knowledge required must be gained at second hand, through books.

(3) In accordance with the general psychological law that the mind works downwards from the whole to the parts, and from the vague to the definite, the first presentation should be the artificial globe as the representative of the earth; and when the grand outline has been made somewhat articulate by subdivisions, the details should be supplied from the text, and thus a *definite* whole reconstructed out of the original vague whole.

Of course this is only suggestive. A different philosophy would involve a different method of procedure.

School Management.—Another branch of professional knowledge, of capital importance to all who teach, is *method*, as related to school organization and government. In fact, in the order of time this knowledge is prior to that just discussed; for before a school can be taught it must be organized, and when organized it must be governed to save

it from disintegration. While the final purpose of the school is instruction, it is nevertheless true that the real efficiency of the school is chiefly related to the mode and degree of its organization and discipline. Teachers should be taught to aspire to a high type of school organization and government, and the principles and rules of this art should be expounded with all possible clearness. In a thing so apparently simple as the making of a programme, there is involved a large amount of pedagogical knowledge. To do such a piece of work intelligently and well is a high accomplishment, of which only a comparatively few are capable. To organize and grade a public school, and to provide it with a suitable course of study, I believe to be one of the highest feats of pedagogic skill. At least the elements of these arts should be taught in the Institute; and the work I have attempted to outline in this section should be ranked as one main part of the scheme of instruction. When it can be done under proper conditions, a most interesting and instructive item in the Institute programme is the concrete illustration of method by means of an actual class exercise, as in reading, spelling, or number. Elementary exercises are the best for this purpose, as children are least likely to suffer from self-consciousness. It is unsafe, however, to improvise a class for this purpose. A skillful teacher with her own class can alone be reasonably sure of success.

What has been said thus far relates chiefly to subject-matter and to method; and the belief has been expressed that the limitation of time restricts the instruction given in the Institute by preference, to method. Assuming that teachers have some competence in the branches to be taught, our efforts should be directed mainly to leading them to know how to instruct, how to organize, and how to govern.

Psychology applied to the Teaching. — At this point it is necessary to say a word with reference to what we may call

the subjective element of professional knowledge—that part of psychology which bears on the presentation of knowledge and its elaboration into faculty, habit, opinion, common sense. Much of this grade of instruction ought to be given. In every Institute there will be at least a few minds of the better order that find delight in reflecting on the *rationale* of methods, and there are many more that might be easily provoked to this kind of thinking. I see no good reason why the average teacher may not be interested in knowing the general mode of mental growth, and the parts that are played in this process by sensation, memory, imagination, and judgment. One valid test of good teaching is the extent to which it induces in pupils the ability to think and the habit of thinking; and I see no reason why the instruction given in an Institute should not be valued by the same standard.

In the process of my discussion thus far, I have made incidental mention of several topics that are of prime importance in the actual management of Institutes. These topics will now be considered in moderate detail.

1. As between class instruction and instruction by lecture, which is preferable for Institute use?

Where so much must be done in such a short space of time, the question of method is all-important. The broad distinction between lecturing and teaching must be kept in mind. In mere lecturing, the pupil is permitted to know; he has an opportunity to learn; he may learn if he will. On the part of the pupil, the lecture presupposes a mind already alert, already bent on serious acquisition; or its purpose may be merely to awaken and stimulate a desire to know—to implant a strong motive for acquisition. Class instruction, on the contrary, *causes* a pupil to know. Here the teacher comes into close relations with the pupil, and puts him under obligations to know. The actual difference is about the same as that between advising and commanding. As a general rule, the efficiency of instruction by lecture

risers in proportion to the growing ability and interest of the learner. Its efficiency is greatest where there is the greatest maturity of intellect and scholarship, and least where the degree of intellectual awakening is lowest.

The chief circumstances that favor the adoption of the lecture method are the need of awakening a strong interest in a subject, the need of teaching the outlines of a subject within a short space of time, and the need of teaching matter new in substance or in form, and therefore inaccessible by other means.

If these distinctions are well founded, I think it follows that, in a session of one week, the typical mode of Institute instruction is by lecture, and this for the following reasons: Not much instruction can be given in subjects; but what is given must be select matter, and must be presented by a process of rapid outlining. The typical work of such an Institute must be instruction in methods and principles, and matter of this sort is inaccessible save through oral communication. In all Institute work, an object of first importance is the creation of professional enthusiasm and a strong desire for higher attainments. For these ends the lecture method is preëminently serviceable.

It is not necessary to assume that, in this process of instruction, the learner is merely a passive recipient. He may be this, but he need not be. In general, lecturers do not require their hearers to reproduce the substance of what has been communicated, the retention and assimilation of the subject matter being left to voluntary choice; but in an Institute there is no good reason why there may not be a recitation of what has been presented in the lecture. As a means towards this end, I believe that systematic note-taking is essential. These summaries will allow the members to recall the oral expositions, and will serve as the basis for the desired recitations. With these qualifications, I believe the lecture method is the one best suited to an Institute of short duration.

Instruction in the Subject Matter of the School Course. — In a session of two weeks considerable instruction in subjects may be given in a modified form of class work. The preparation of assigned lessons will scarcely be practicable, but there may be more or less recitation work in the sense that members can be examined on set topics, and can be made to exhibit their proficiency by doing some actual work.

The most satisfactory Institute work I have seen done was in a session of two weeks, where the conductor had three assistants. The first hour in each session was devoted to a lecture on some professional subject by the conductor, given to the whole body of teachers. The Institute was then broken up into three sections, and these passed in succession from one assistant to another, so that, besides the general lesson, each member, in every session, had been instructed in three topics, as arithmetic, grammar, and geography. It seems to me that this is very near the ideal mode of conducting a two weeks' Institute, as it preserves the normal proportion between the two methods of instruction. I do not know that any essential modification would be needed for sessions of three or four weeks.

Difficulties to be encountered. — I have already referred to the fact that a serious limitation upon the work of an Institute is the heterogeneous character of its membership as to interest, intent, and ability; and every conductor must have debated the question whether a grading of the Institute is practicable. No one can doubt that substantial advantages would come from a sorting of teachers on the basis of ability, and from the opportunity thus given of making the instruction more individual; nor can any one doubt that such a classification is theoretically possible. The main difficulty lies in the cost of such an organization. In general, a multiplication of grades multiplies the teaching force, and hence the cost of instruction. With three grades the work is trebled, and, if the work of the present teaching force is not also to be trebled, there must be three times the

number of instructors. This difficulty is greatly increased on the supposition that, at the second session of the Institute, three grades of newcomers are to be added to the three already established. Taking into account all the difficulties in the case, it seems to me that a real grading of the Institute is impracticable, and that, for the present at least, the skill of the conductor must be taxed to interest and instruct a heterogeneous membership. The greatest difficulty to overcome is the indifference of teachers; and one of the best tests of the ability of an Institute instructor is his success in arousing an early interest in the work in hand. If, at the close of the session, the members could be examined on certain portions of the work done, and some tangible credit could be awarded for their proficiency, one of the greatest difficulties in Institute management would be overcome.

I have now presented the main elements of the Institute problem as it lies in my own mind, and my discussion of this question has been based on experience rather than upon any assumed theory of what ought to be or might be. It is very easy to describe the ideal Institute, where everybody shall be pleased and instructed; but whoever knows from actual experience the real difficulties of this work will speak with great moderation and with many reservations. There is no feat in teaching so difficult as that of interesting and instructing the heterogeneous membership of an Institute; and he who does not feel the need of revising his methods after each attempt at the practical solution of this problem has not yet learned its simplest elements.

All who are engaged in this variety of educational work have yet much to learn by study, by experience, and conference; but it is fair to remember that many of the imperfections of this work are inherent in the material with which we have to do. These inherent difficulties will persist in spite of us. We must court fresh accessions of skill to the end that we may overcome the obstacles that beset our prog-

ress. And if, after all our forethought and effort, the results are disappointing, we must do ourselves the justice to remember that we are not responsible for the limitations of time, for inequalities of membership, or for original ignorance and indifference.

Aims of the Institute.—The following recapitulation will close this part of the discussion:

1. The Institute should be regarded as the chief agency now at our command for communicating some measure of professional knowledge and some degree of the professional spirit to the great mass of teachers who have had no preparatory training.

2. The Institute should supplement, not supersede, the normal school. It should not claim to give even the elements of academic education or to communicate in full the theory and the art of teaching, but should inspire its membership with a determination to gain the helps that are offered by larger courses of instruction, or, when this is impossible, to pursue a systematic course of self-instruction by reading and study.

3. The aim of the Institute should be rather to communicate the best methods of organizing, governing, and instructing, than to teach subject matter; and the instruction in subjects should be mainly in the line of review and revival.

4. When practicable, instruction should be made in some measure individual by an organization by sections, and in this class instruction the members should be made to take some active part.

5. In short sessions, instruction by lecture and note taking is preferable, but recitation should form a part of every exercise. In longer sessions, class work should be brought into greater prominence.

6. The best work of the Institute should be regarded as the creation of the scholarly and the professional spirit, a desire to reach high scholastic attainments, and an ambition to attain to artistic excellence in teaching.

An incidental purpose served by the Institute is too important to be overlooked. I mean the wholesome effect which it may have on the communities in which it is held, in the way of a better educational sentiment among the people. In many cases a school of a high type is impossible by reason of the backwardness and inertia of public opinion. The people themselves must be educated up to a certain point before an enlightened and skillful teacher can do his best work. There are numberless instances in which a new era in the history of a school has dated from the time when a good Institute excited an interest in better methods, and gave moral support to teachers struggling against the inertia of public opinion.

Evening Lectures.—This tonic effect of the Institute is produced in part through the lectures and class exercises of the day sessions; but chiefly, I think, through the evening lectures delivered by persons who speak with some degree of authority. Such lectures, to be of real service, should bear on educational themes, and should be of a character to interest a popular audience. These lectures may fail of their purpose, either by being too technical or by bearing on themes exclusively literary, scientific, or historical.

Even when administered under the most favorable circumstances, the Institute cannot be counted on to produce on the teaching class what may be called a constitutional effect. The popular lecture is by no means a substitute for the library or the school. It is invaluable as a stimulus to reading and study, and if it does not lead to this result it is to be counted only as a pastime.

The foregoing clear and practical presentation of the true purpose and scope of the Teachers' Institute is taken from the *Contributions to the Science of Education*, by Wm. H. Payne, President of Peabody Normal College, Nashville, Tenn., formerly Professor of the Science and Art of Teach-

ing in the University of Michigan. In the views expressed in this paper there seems to be a very general concurrence of contemporaneous educators.

"Academic instruction," says an eminent authority, "should have a *small* place in an Institute. The schools must be depended upon to teach the several branches of study; the Institute must show how to teach these branches. The school teaches pupils to divide one fraction by another; the Institute shows teachers how to teach the division of fractions. Institute instruction should unfold the vital guiding principles of the teacher's art, and it should present and illustrate the methods which embody these principles in actual practice."

"That the Institute should not be allowed to take the place of the more formal and extended training of the normal school, requires no emphasis," says Dr. R. G. Boone, President of the State Normal School of Michigan. "That it may be made an efficient supplement of the school for hundreds of teachers, the experience of Indiana has abundantly proved."

There is an apparent difference of views expressed in these paragraphs, one of which asserts substantially that the Institute is not to take the place of *academic* training, and the other that it is not to take the place of *normal school* training, but to be a supplement of the school. There is, however, no necessary conflict of opinion here. "*An efficient supplement of the school*" is a happy characterization of the Institute. Some instruction in the subject matter of school studies may be profitably given, without detracting from the main purpose, which is to "impress upon teachers the general nature of each subject and the best methods of instructing and governing."

The Development of the Institute. — There has been a systematic development of the Teachers' Institute, as noteworthy as its growth in membership. For many years the true function of this Institute was not generally recognized.

The principles of psychology received little or no attention, and the subject matter of the school studies was regarded as the principal, if not the only matter to be presented for discussion. With the multiplication and growth of normal schools in the various States, higher ideals in education have been popularized among the teachers, and the principles of pedagogics have received general attention. With each successive year there is found to be a larger proportion of teachers trained at the normal schools for continuous professional work in the educational field. There is a gradually advancing standard of general education in the requirements made of teachers, and there is a corresponding elevation of the grade and quality of Institute work. The Institutes become more professional as the members are presupposed to possess generally a larger acquaintance with the science and art of teaching.

The Influence of the State Superintendent. — The influence of the Superintendent of Public Instruction as a State officer has grown within recent years. That official, whose functions are and must be largely those of a business manager of the school system, has become more and more an educational force, directing the thought of educational workers into new and important channels, and securing the union of elements of educational power which otherwise would be scattered and less important in their results.

In a number of States manuals or outlines of Institute work have been issued from the Department of Public Instruction, the effect of which has been to secure for the State a general unity of plans and of subjects for the Institutes of the year. The value of the Institutes thus directed into a general unity of plan has been largely increased.

The Influence of the County Superintendent. — Upon the county superintendent, or commissioner of schools, the success and value of the Institute must very largely depend. It rests with him to determine the character and the amount of the instruction to be conducted by "home talent," and

the work to be committed to professional Institute instructors. An efficient superintendent, possessing a personal acquaintance with the teachers of his county and a knowledge of their individual ability, can make the best use of the materials at hand. An enterprising county superintendent will secure educators of recognized ability and eminence in the profession for the lectures of the Institute. A really able and strong lecturer will leave an impression which will be lasting upon the mind and character of every teacher present. How much depends upon the county superintendent may be readily realized from a comparison of different Institutes conducted under similar circumstances.

"The exercises may sometimes be pedantic, often dogmatic, occasionally irrelevant," says Dr. R. G. Boone. "They are known to be in places insipid, or often puerile; notwithstanding which it is believed that the final influence in the State has been greatly to the upbuilding of truer educational standards, the establishment of sounder views, and the adoption of more rational instruments of culture." Many of the Institutes at the present time are remarkable for the excellent character of their instruction, the eminence of their instructors, and the great and lasting influence which they exert. The county Institute offers an excellent opportunity for the organization of Teachers' Reading Circles and of other auxiliaries to the regular work of the schools.

The Members of the Institute.—In view of the shortness of the Institute term, it behooves the teacher to make the best of the opportunities which it offers. He should be supplied with a note-book, and should make copious notes of the exercises, especially of those matters which will prove most serviceable to him in the work of his school. He should give strict attention to all the work and miss no opportunity for acquiring benefit from it. He should not be reluctant to participate in the work, either by conducting exercises or by taking active part in the reviews and discussions.

Special Topics of Instruction in Institutes. — The Institute offers an opportunity for imparting desirable information on certain special topics, which are treated inadequately or not at all in the text-books of the school course, but which have an important bearing upon the studies, and will add to the pupil's interest in them.

Most of the Western States possess a local history running back to colonial days. The territory included in them was the scene of notable events in the olden time — events which possess deep significance in their relation to American exploration and the working out of our national destiny, but which receive at best only a scant notice in the school histories. Short and sprightly essays on the early history of the region embraced in the State will add to the interest and value of the Institute.

Facts of interest relating to the State government may be presented in convenient and compact form, and will prove especially valuable where there is no provision for the study of this subject in the school course. A concise presentation of the physiological effects of stimulants and narcotics will be found especially valuable to teachers where this subject is not treated in the school text-books in use.

A brief systematic review of the more important phases of American literature will afford suggestions which the teacher can utilize to advantage in his programmes for the birthdays of American authors and statesmen. From a State manual of Institute work is taken the appended topical exercise on this subject, which will be of interest to teachers of all grades.

AMERICAN LITERATURE

I

1. **The First Book written in America.** — John Smith's *History of Virginia*, from which most of the early accounts of

the Old Dominion are taken. It was published in England, and is now a rare literary curiosity.

2. The Earliest Phase of American Literature, Theological and Controversial. — 1. Reasons for this. 2. The first book printed in America — the *Bay Psalm Book*, 1640: Cambridge. 3. Noted theological writers — Thomas Hooker, John Cotton, Roger Williams, etc. 4. Specimens of this period extant — Cotton Mather's *Witchcraft* (a literary curiosity), *Edwards on the Will* (a standard treatise), etc.

3. The Second Phase, Political and Oratorical. — 1. Reasons for this. 2. Noted orators — Patrick Henry of Virginia; Samuel Adams and James Otis of Massachusetts, and others.

4. Four Noted Compositions.

1. *The Declaration of Independence*; by whom written; when adopted; its remarkable features.

2. *The Constitution of the United States*; by whom written (by Gouverneur Morris); adopted by what convention; when adopted; when ratified and declared in force.

3. *The Madison Papers*; their contents (full reports of the Constitutional Convention, etc.); by whom written; in what way valuable (as a commentary on the Constitution); how long unpublished (over fifty years).

4. *The Federalist*; when and where published, and in what form; its purpose, and its results; its contributors, and their signature (Publius).

5. Franklin and his Writings. — 1. Franklin's name, the greatest in the literature of this period. 2. His eminence in statesmanship and in science. 3. The amount of Franklin's literary work (which fills ten octavo volumes). 4. *Poor Richard's Almanac* (which he published for twenty-five years).

Next in order is the more varied literature of the constitutional period. In presenting the following subjects, it may be well for the Institute instructor to describe the

characteristics of the persons, omitting the names and calling upon the teachers for the name when a character is recognized by the description.

6. Five Great Statesmen.

1. Daniel Webster. Characteristics: profundity of thought, clearness of expression, bold and striking images, majestic diction and manner.
2. Henry Clay. Characteristics: frank and chivalrous spirit, freshness and beauty of thought, gracefulness of language and manner.
3. John C. Calhoun. Characteristics: intense energy of expression, conciseness of statement.
4. Charles Sumner. Characteristics: finished and scholarly address, exhaustive presentation of subject.
5. John Quincy Adams. Characteristics: earnestness and persistency, remarkable knowledge on all subjects, simplicity of speech.

II

1. Five Noted Poets.

1. William Cullen Bryant. He interprets Nature in all her forms, and is happiest in description of American scenery.
2. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. His artistic skill in the use of words, and the perfection of his meter and euphony.
3. John Greenleaf Whittier. His earnestness of appeal, tenderness of feeling, and simplicity of language.
4. Oliver Wendell Holmes. His keen and pointed wit; his polished verse, resembling that of Pope.
5. James Russell Lowell. The versatility of his genius; rhythmic beauty held secondary to his full expression of vigorous thought.

2. The Historians.

1. George Bancroft. His great work (*History of America*, 10 vols.); his industry in collecting scattered records of our early history; his care and skill in ascertaining facts and eliminating the doubtful and false; the dignity of his style.
2. William H. Prescott. His principal works (*The Conquest of Mexico*, *The Conquest of Peru*, etc.); the unequalled romance of his subject; the absorbing interest of his narration; his depiction of beautiful scenes and of sublime and terrible tragedies; his graceful and eloquent language.
3. John Lothrop Motley. His principal works (*The Rise of the Dutch Republic*, *John of Barneveld*, etc.); the unromantic character of his subject — a phlegmatic people of a small, poor, and dreary land; the relation of a tremendous and heroic struggle for human freedom; his deep sympathy in the contest between freedom and oppression; his stirring portrayals of heroic spirit; his analysis of character and motive; his pure and elegant style.

3. Authors of Prose Fiction and Belles-lettres.

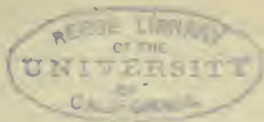
1. James Fenimore Cooper, our first eminent novelist. His principal works (*The Spy*, *The Pilot*, etc.).
2. Nathaniel Hawthorne. His principal works (*The House of Seven Gables*, *The Marble Faun*, etc.); his choice of weird and sometimes morbid subjects; his delicacy and skill in treatment; the felicities of his style.
3. Washington Irving. His popular works (*The Sketch Book*, *Tales of a Traveler*, etc.); the purity of his language, recalling the style of Addison; the grace and elegance of his diction, resembling that of Goldsmith.

4. Harriet Beecher Stowe. Her greatest work (*Uncle Tom's Cabin*), and its influence upon American history.
5. Ralph Waldo Emerson. The peculiarities of his style; his boldness of thought and originality of treatment; the frequency of his apothegms.
4. **The Lexicographers.**
 1. Noah Webster; his Dictionary (completed in 1828); his reforms in spelling; his influence on our language.
 2. Joseph E. Worcester; his Dictionary (completed in 1846); his erudition; his conservatism; the value of his work.

VIII

TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES

PUPILS' READING CIRCLES



CHAPTER XIII

TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES

The New Profession. — When Henry Ward Beecher delivered his famous lecture on *The New Profession*, he was greeted from every side with the remark, "Why, teaching is not new; it is as old as the hills!"

The advancement of any calling from a humble rank among the occupations of men to one commensurate with its true dignity and importance is a noteworthy step in human progress. The *trade* of the teacher is as old as *recorded* history. The *profession* of teaching is new.

The difference between the two is really very great, though the transition from the one to the other has been so gradual that it is not yet fully realized or even admitted by many. Likewise, the profession of the clergyman struggled long for recognition. Speaking of the comedies of Shadwell and Van Brugh, a writer remarks:

"Perhaps no picture that they drew appears to be more outrageously libelous than that of the clergyman. It would seem impossible that, in the social gatherings of representative people, where attorneys and counselors, physicians and authors, were the boon companions of knights and lords, the minister was excluded from the best of the feast over which he had invoked the divine blessing, and was expected to associate chiefly with the servants in the kitchen. It seems incredible that he should never have aspired to the hand of a maiden of higher social rank than a cook. Yet Macaulay has shown that these representations were generally truth-

ful and correct, so far as the clergy was concerned, and has furnished additional details of the desperate condition of the English rectors of two centuries ago. And Swift, the great Irish dean, declared that even in his day a pastor was deemed an undesirable suitor for an ignorant waiting maid, unless her character had been so injured by scandal as to preclude all hope of her marrying a butler or a steward. And these were ministers of the Established Church, the noblest ecclesiastical organization of which the English gentlemen could conceive. Under circumstances which must have rendered him an object of compassion or of contempt to the very servants of great houses, the faithful pastor labored and struggled. Through generations the inherent nobility of the ministerial calling asserted itself; and it has long been splendid in its social influence, its intellectual and moral power, and its temporal endowments."

"Why do we complain," said Col. Francis W. Parker, some years ago, "that we, as teachers, are kept down; that our salaries are poor; that we, like 'Poor Joe,' must 'move on' so frequently; that it is a question whether teaching is a profession or a trade; that we take rank socially below the minister, the lawyer, and the doctor; that the school boards and parents refuse to allow us to *educate* the children; that newspapers and learned authorities pour such a flood of criticism upon our work; that we must look beyond this world for the reward of our patient toil?"

"The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
But in ourselves, that we are underlings."

"What we complain of are realities, and terrible realities too. I suppose it is owing to the fallen or weak nature of man that he seeks for causes of every evil outside of himself. . . . We are here to make conditions. Complaints of others and of circumstances sink into complaints of self, when we catch one glimpse of the immense possibilities for improvement in ourselves and in our pupils."

The Past Decade in Education.—The past decade has been a period of unprecedented educational advancement, of activity in every department of educational work. Great progress has been made in securing efficient supervision of schools in the city, the county, and the State. Notable normal schools and universities of the highest rank have been founded, and in many ways have exerted their influence upon the mass of the people. Uniform standards of school work have been established in many States. Organizations of teachers and school officers—National, State, and local—have grown in membership and increased in number. *Everywhere* a professional spirit has been manifested by those who are engaged in the work of education.

Of the instrumentalities of the past decade which have contributed to the advancement of the professional standing of the teachers, the Reading Circle has been one of the most valuable and important.

Associations of teachers for systematic, professional, and general culture are not an innovation. Page insisted upon something more than the mere cursory reading of miscellaneous books by the teacher. Starting out with his strong emphasis of the true spirit of the person entering upon the teacher's work, he clearly indicated the need of "a spirit of inquiry, of earnestness, and of progress," and the necessity for a knowledge of the work to be done. He was no less insistent in reference to the teacher's need of a general acquaintance with standard authors in general literature. He recommended systematic reading and study. He went so far as to estimate the number of hours a day which the teacher might profitably devote to such work.

The First State Reading Circles.—State Teachers' Reading Circles have been a development of more recent years. The oldest State organization of this name which was established on the plan now essentially followed, and which now possesses the largest enrollment, is that of Indiana; State organizations of a somewhat similar character and name had

been previously established in Ohio, and, still earlier, in Wisconsin.

The Indiana State Teachers' Reading Circle had its origin in the State Teachers' Association at its meeting (in Indianapolis) in 1883, when the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

"*Resolved*, 1. That the association proceed at once to take the necessary steps to inaugurate an organization among the teachers of Indiana for reading and study, to be known as the 'Indiana Teachers' Reading Circle.'

"2. That this circle be under the care and direction of the Indiana State Teachers' Association, which shall make rules for its management, arrange its course, direct its examinations, and confer such honors as it may determine.

"3. That this association proceed to choose a board of directors, to which shall be intrusted the selection of a course of professional and literary reading, the issuing of certificates of progress, and the granting of diplomas as evidence of its completion.

"4. The Board of Directors of the Indiana Teachers' Reading Circle shall consist of eight members, selected by the association from its own members, two of whom shall serve for one year, two for two years, two for three years, and two for four years; and hereafter two members shall be elected annually to serve for four years. The Board of Directors shall select its officers, arrange its meetings, and record and publish its proceedings."

A plan of organization was prepared in March, following, by the Reading Circle Board, and has remained without essential modification to the present time. The plan provided for the establishment of a Reading Circle Bureau at the Department of Public Instruction; for county and local organizations, under the direction of the county superintendents; for the publication of outlines and notes of Reading Circle work, as an aid to the teacher; for examinations of teachers upon the work performed, at the close of the school year.

The establishment of Reading Circles proceeded rapidly. In January, 1885, similar organizations were effected in Iowa and in Illinois. In June of the same year Minnesota

and Michigan followed. In July Wisconsin established a new State organization. In August Kansas, Nebraska, and Kentucky followed. In September Texas organized a Reading Circle; in October, Tennessee; in November, Alabama and the Territory of Dakota; in December, North Carolina. In these various States there was a general tendency to follow essentially the plan adopted in Indiana, in its leading features.

An interesting exhibit of Reading Circle work was displayed at the Cotton Centennial celebration conducted at New Orleans, in 1885, and also at the St. Louis Exposition of the same year.

Discussion of Reading Circle Work.—In March, 1886, at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association, at Washington, the subject of Reading Circle organization and work was thoroughly discussed. Papers were read on the subject by Dr. Jerome Allen, editor of the New York *School Journal*, and Hubert M. Skinner, Deputy State Superintendent of Indiana, and Secretary of the organization in that State.

Dr. Allen emphasized the professional side of the work, and regarded this as fully sufficient in itself for a Reading Circle course. He said:—

“If a teacher knows all science, literature, and art, and does not know the mind and its growth, he is not prepared to teach. His work is empirical.

“So far, we have discussed knowledge essential to a teacher's success. Closely connected with this are methods of instruction, organization, school government, school systems, school laws, and the history of education. Without a knowledge of these subjects there may be a great degree of success, if there is possessed a thorough and practical knowledge of the nature and growth of the mind; but it is essential that this should be supplemented by the topics of secondary knowledge just mentioned. This should come as a part of the necessary reading of all teachers, especially

of those who have not had the advantages of professional training.

"It is objected that teachers cannot be made to read professional and psychological literature; that they have little time to read anything; that we have no science of education; and that it is necessary for them to know something about history, literature, science, art, and everyday affairs. Now the fact is, we *have* a science of education; and *some* knowledge of the common branches is possessed by *all* teachers. It is essential for us to train up professional teachers as fast as possible. Empirical work is ruining our schools. Our salvation lies in better professional knowledge and practice, through which we shall get more permanency. To dissipate and scatter our forces by recommending teachers to read everything, will be to destroy all definite work and special preparation.

"Our Teachers' Reading Circles are set to do one thing—the improvement of teachers as teachers. Any attempt to cover the whole range of literature in a Reading Circle course designed for the rank and file of those engaged in the vocation, will fail of making the quality of instruction appreciably better. 'This one thing I do,' was the motto of St. Paul, and it has been the motto of all successful men and organizations since his time. The lawyers' reading club discusses law matters; the doctors' associations stick to their *materia medica* and dry bones; the ministers contend about 'apostolic' succession and foreordination. Why should not teachers use equally as much wisdom? The time is coming when they will do so. The very necessities of the times will shut them up to this course, *and no other.*"

Mr. Skinner was no less emphatic in urging the necessity for strictly professional study, but was strongly in favor of associating with it studies of a more general character. In this he expressed the general sentiment of the vast majority of teachers, and this sentiment has gathered strength in the succeeding years.

"General culture study," he said, "is recognized as indispensable to the Reading Circle work. Second in the order of consideration, it is not second in importance, since the success of the entire plan depends upon it. This is the leavening influence to which I referred. Teachers must have light and sunshine drawn from outside the schoolroom atmosphere. However great its value, purely professional reading — a constant reminder of arduous and unremitting duties — has less attraction than the new and broad fields of general culture. While I have insisted that teaching is a profession (and this argues a life work and life study), there are, and must be, very many teachers who do not make of it a profession in the sense of a permanent occupation. However earnest is their desire to do well, they are not so easily drawn to a course pertaining solely to a calling in which they are but temporarily engaged, as they are to one which is more general in its nature.

"With us, the general culture idea has been an essential and life-giving feature. It has opened up new fields. It has proved a recreation. It has not only lightened the other work and lent a charm to all, but has been a cardinal feature — I might almost say *the* feature — in securing the enrollment, and in holding together the members enrolled. Nor has it obtained in one section alone. It has prevailed in the Reading Circles of most States. A recent editorial of the *Intelligence* on the subject we are discussing has been widely copied and read. I quote it here: 'The literature of bare facts, of mere information, of teacherhood, is the region in which the teacher now marches and countermarches, accomplishing something, but certainly no great triumph. But the literature of power, of culture, of inspiration, of manhood, that which cuts no figure in his diploma or certificate, but which alone gives life and potency to all that his certificate does contain, is a field into which the teacher ought to be led with all the steadfastness and enthusiasm which organization and fellowship can possibly give.'"

State Organizations Necessary. — Mr. Skinner made a strong plea for State organizations; and in view of a disposition which is manifested in some localities to maintain independent local organizations, it is well to recur, at this time, to the arguments which he adduced:

“In the first place,” said he, in describing the Reading Circle, “it should be a State organization. It should be neither National nor independently local. There are various reasons why this form of organization should be held superior to any other. The school system, to which it is auxiliary, is a State organization; and public instruction is more or less uniform within the limits of the State. In Indiana, and in various other commonwealths, there is a uniform course of study for all the country schools; there is a common need; there are common requirements; there is a common system of township meetings, or institutes; there is a teachers’ association for the entire State.

“Again, in the State the system is already organized. The county superintendents are already equipped for the work. They are the medium of communication between the State Department of Public Instruction and the individual teacher. There is a peculiar value and appropriateness, beyond any mere convenience, in a close union of the Reading Circle system with the State school system. With new light thrown upon teachers’ work, and a professional spirit aroused, Teachers’ Institutes will acquire additional interest and value. There is a further argument of no small force, it would seem to me, in behalf of State organizations, and that is that there is a spirit of emulation, of generous rivalry, among the States in educational matters. Their ‘exhibits’ at Madison, New Orleans, and elsewhere have attested this abundantly. State systems may be readily compared as to their workings and merits. Admitted excellences are a source of honest pride to teachers and citizens generally. Defects are best shown and are corrected with greatest alacrity when they appeal to State pride. And this is true

not only of educational matters; it is the beauty of our Federal system of government that the various States are admitted to have their own peculiar needs; and a diversity of organization, with its attendant generous rivalry in excellence, conduces to the best results."

The Maintenance of the Reading Circles. — The expense of maintaining the Reading Circles is by no means felt as a burden by the teachers. Where the plan of a membership fee was adopted, it was generally soon dropped. The county superintendents, or commissioners, gladly contribute their services in aid of a cause which wields so great an influence for the improvement of the schools. The publishers of the books agree upon a small rebate, or make a contribution to cover the expense of circulars, outlines, etc. The work is in the hands of its sincere friends, the school officers and teachers, who generously vie with each other in their efforts for its success.

American Pedagogical Literature. — A notable result of the general establishment of Reading Circles has been the development of pedagogical literature in the United States. There was little of this ten years ago. Books for teachers had but a limited sale, and were apt to prove a source of positive loss to publishers. The new market for strictly professional works stimulated American authors to the production of dozens of works on psychology, pedagogy, and didactics. The majority of these are highly creditable; some possess merits which cause them to rank as standard and enduring treatises. A stimulus has been given also to the production of books of general culture designed especially for the use of teachers. A third class of books, partaking of the nature of both the foregoing classes, has appeared, of which Boone's *Education in the United States* and *The Schoolmaster in Literature* are examples.

The Period of Probation. — Great as the advantages of Teachers' Reading Circles manifestly are, it is not to be denied that there are to be found teachers and school officers

who ignore the Reading Circle as an organization. Some there are, indeed, who affect to see in it only a scheme to sell books. It should be remembered that the establishment of the county superintendency, or commissionership, a score or more of years ago, was opposed in much the same way, as a plan to add to the burden of taxpayers the expense of another county officer. Still earlier, the establishment of State normal schools for the training of the teachers of the public schools was opposed as a scheme to find places for more teachers.

The county superintendent or normal educator who opposes the Teachers' Reading Circle and its work in a similar way is but strengthening the arguments which have been used, doubtless, in his own State legislature, and probably will be used again, for the abolition of the superintendency and for the crippling, if not the extinction, of the State normal schools.

The amount of opposition which the Reading Circle receives from school officers and teachers is happily small. By far the greater obstacle to surmount in the building up of the Reading Circle organization in any State is the apathy of the school officers and teachers, who need to be awakened to the importance of the work. In very many cases the teacher waits for the county superintendent to take the lead and display energy in building up the organization among his teachers. The county superintendent, on the other hand, may wait for his teachers to take the lead and manifest an interest in such work, before he feels it incumbent upon him to engage actively in it or to show any enthusiasm in furthering it.

The conspicuous success of the Teachers' Reading Circle of Indiana, which has an active working membership of more than 12,000 teachers from year to year, has demonstrated conclusively what can be done by an earnest, coöperative effort of those having in charge the educational interests of the State.

The Period of Assured Permanency. — The Reading Circle has passed beyond the problematical stage, and is now respected as a permanent and integral part of the school system in many States—as much so as the State normal school or the county superintendency. When this point shall have been passed in any State, the spirit of opposition will be practically silenced, and the work will go forward without interruption. The teacher will expect to be a member of the Reading Circle, as naturally as he expects to be the possessor of a teacher's license. To this consummation in every State the conscientious teacher or school officer should lend his active influence.

The True Origin of the Reading Circles. — It should be remembered that the Teachers' Reading Circle originated among the teachers themselves, and was due to no outside influence or suggestion. It originated at a time when there were scarcely any pedagogical books in the market, and when it was exceedingly difficult for the board to procure books that would answer the purpose of their organization.

The inception of the Teachers' Reading Circles was due to a spontaneous recognition of the teachers' needs, which recognition was voiced most happily by a lady teacher, whose name will always be associated with the most sincere loyalty to the true interests of education. I refer to Mrs. Rebecca D. Moffatt, of Rushville, Ind., to whom was largely due the timely action of the Indiana Teachers' Association, which has been mentioned heretofore in this chapter.

The establishment of the Reading Circle, as an act of the teachers themselves, for their own common benefit, possesses a strong significance. In the majority of States, the teachers and school officers have coöperated; sometimes it was the teachers, and sometimes the county superintendents, who took the initiative in the matter of formal organization; but in either event, it was an organization of the teachers that was formed for their own benefit, in response to the wishes

of the "rank and file" of the profession, and in recognition of their needs.

The Influence of the School Officer.—The work of the school officer in this connection has been deserving of the highest praise for its disinterestedness. The management of the Reading Circle work has entailed upon the county managers a large amount of work which they might otherwise have avoided. Frequently they have not only contributed their labor, but have also subjected themselves to personal expense, as well as trouble, in promoting the Reading Circle interests of their respective counties. In view of all the facts, it is humiliating to realize that any representative person engaged in school work should place himself in an attitude of opposition to so important and essential an element of our school life.

However, it was perhaps to be expected that the same forces which had been so strongly arrayed against the normal schools, the county superintendency, and nearly all other modern developments of the educational system should oppose the Reading Circle with equal vehemence, for a time. The period has nearly arrived when, as in preceding instances, all opposition will practically cease from members of the profession; and there are no others directly concerned in it.

In one State, at least (South Dakota), the Teachers' Reading Circle is recognized by law, and legal provision is made for meeting the expenses of maintaining the organization. In many other States the Reading Circle is officially recognized in various ways by the State Board of Education and by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. In Oklahoma the Territorial Board of Education is, in fact, the Reading Circle Board, and the entire management is official. In the majority of the States where it now exists, the Reading Circle is conceded to be a permanent factor in education.

The Present Duty.—Since, then, it is clear that this insti-

tution is to remain, what is the duty of the teacher and the school officer in reference to it—to lessen or to increase its efficiency?

In many counties the teachers seem to be in advance of the school officers in the matter of Reading Circle work, and lack efficient leadership. In others, it must be said, while the officers are earnest and active, the membership is far less than it should be, consisting of only the more progressive teachers, while, in fact, the others are the ones who have greatest need for the assistance and inspiration which it offers.

The course may not always contain the books which commend themselves most to certain teachers. What then? Do they believe that any course can exactly coincide with the first choice of every member? Certainly it is best to keep in touch with the fellow teachers of their State in a work of such importance.

Later Tendencies.—There is a marked tendency, within recent years, to sameness in the courses of different States. Without any regular or formal concert of action, the Reading Circle Boards of various States have shown a substantial agreement as to the books to be read, and as to various details of general and local management. Among the later tendencies is also a disposition on the part of city teachers to enter more generally upon the work of State organization, rather than maintain a local and independent Reading Circle of their own.

The Value of Reading Circle Work.—The teacher should not merely *read* the books selected for the course. He should *master* them. But a small amount of reading is assigned to each week. This should be thoroughly digested. The information, suggestion, and inspiration acquired should be added to the teacher's capital stock of working material. It should manifest itself immediately in his work in the schoolroom. It should add force to his arguments at the Teachers' Institutes. It should give him greater confidence

in himself. It should aid him in the ordeal of his examination for the license to teach.

Local Meetings.—In the graded schools of cities and towns, where the teachers hold weekly meetings, the topics covered by the Reading Circle Course can form the subjects of general and interesting discussion. In the country districts it is frequently inconvenient for teachers to meet together in considerable numbers for such a discussion of the reading assigned.

In many instances the teacher of the country school is isolated from others of his profession, and finds it impossible to meet regularly with any of them. The teacher thus situated should not be discouraged, but should make the most of his opportunities for systematic home reading. The very fact that he is making a study of the same topics and the same books with his fellow teachers throughout the State should serve as encouragement, for it will keep him in touch with them and in accord with the best educational thought of the time.

However, where it is possible for several teachers of country districts to meet together at stated intervals in a local circle, it is highly advantageous for them to do so. There need be no formal local organization in the way of constitution and by-laws. To some member should be assigned the direction of the work for each meeting. It is highly desirable that there should be upon the table a copy of Webster's *International Dictionary*, and that it should be consulted in reference to words concerning which there may be the slightest doubt as to the meaning or pronunciation. The various teachers present may read by paragraphs, each commenting upon the paragraph which he reads; and there may be a general discussion of the topics at the close of the reading.

Another plan is for the teachers to read the assigned work before assembling, and to devote the evening simply to the discussion of what has been read. Sometimes it

adds to the interest for the teachers to prepare, in advance, papers reviewing the assigned reading, expressing opinions upon them.

As a rule, it is desirable that there be but little formality in the Reading Circle meetings, and that the occasions be enlivened by music and by other forms of social entertainment.

The local meetings of Reading Circle members may add greatly to the social interests of a rural community without detracting from their specific use and educational value. Whether the teacher perform the Reading Circle work wholly by himself or in company with others, it is highly desirable in every case that the printed Outlines be carefully followed. They may be supplemented, however, to any desired extent by a more thorough and critical review of the books read, and by the reading or studying of other books and of educational journals which bear upon the same lines of thought.

One of the most striking results of the Teachers' Reading Circle has been the interest which it has added to the Institutes, Teachers' Associations, and Round Tables. It has supplied topics for profitable discussion, and it has enabled the teachers understandingly to discuss them.

Perhaps the best result of all is the fact that the Reading Circle unites in a common interest all the teachers of the State—places them in touch with one another—and thus develops a professional spirit and interest which is the life of the education of to-day. To its interests no true teacher can be insensible, nor is there one who can well afford to miss the opportunities which it offers for professional advancement.

The Present Trend of Reading Circle Work. — The general trend of Reading Circle work for teachers at the present time may be seen in the following summary of the courses of reading pursued by these organizations in a number of States for the school years 1893-4 and 1894-5:

1893-4.

INDIANA.

1894-5.

De Garmo's *Essentials of Method*.
 Woodburn and Hodgins' *Oration*
of Burke and Webster.

Tompkins' *Philosophy of Educa-*
tion.
Selections from Ruskin.

ILLINOIS.

Page's *Theory and Practice of*
Teaching.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore.

MICHIGAN.

Swett's *Methods of Teaching*.
 Shepherd's *Historical Readings*.

Boone's *Education in the United*
States.
 Parker's *How to Study Geography*.

IOWA.

White's *Elements of Pedagogy*.
 Shepherd's *Historical Readings*.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore, or
 Hale's *Lights of Two Centuries*.

MISSOURI.

First Year Class.

Page's *Theory and Practice of*
Teaching.
 Hawthorne and Lemmon's *Ameri-*
can Literature.

First Year Class.

Page's *Theory and Practice of*
Teaching.
 Hawthorne and Lemmon's *Ameri-*
can Literature.

Second Year Class.

Hewett's *Pedagogy for Young*
Teachers.
 Smiles' *Character*.

Second Year Class.

Hewett's *Pedagogy for Young*
Teachers.
 Smiles' *Character*.

Third Year Class.

Compayré's *Lectures on Teaching*.
 Hale's *Lights of Two Centuries*.

Third Year Class.

Compayré's *Lectures on Teaching*.
 Hale's *Lights of Two Centuries*.

WISCONSIN.

Swett's *Methods of Teaching*.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore.

1893-4.

KANSAS.

1894-5.

Payne's *Compayré's Applied Psychology*.
Masterpieces of American Literature.

Painter's *History of Education*.
 Fisk's *Civil Government*.

MINNESOTA.

Berard's *History of England*.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore, or
 Gregory's *Political Economy*.

COLORADO.

White's *Elements of Pedagogy*.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore.

NEBRASKA.

White's *Elements of Pedagogy*, or
 Shepherd's *Historical Readings*.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore, or
 Dickens' *Child's History of England*.

NORTH DAKOTA.

White's *Elements of Pedagogy*.
The Schoolmaster in Literature.

Andrews' *Elementary Geology*.
 Hale's *Lights of Two Centuries*.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

The Schoolmaster in Literature.
 Shepherd's *Historical Readings*.

White's *School Management*.
Readings in Folklore.

NOTES ON TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES

While this home study never can be to the individual what personal contact with the teacher is, still much useful knowledge, and inspiration as well, may come through carefully selected reading. . . . It need not be replied that some teachers have neither money nor leisure to pursue a course of reading which shall the better fit them for their

work. It must be, as it has ever been, that present sacrifice must be made for future good. There ought to be years of preparation in hope of doing better work and of receiving better compensation. All over the world, notably in our own country, there is an intellectual awakening. People are thinking, investigating, getting abreast of the age. Teachers must not be left behind. The times demand broader culture, more exact training, and a higher manliness.

—EMMA MONT. McRAE.

For teachers there is needed, not only the most thoroughly professional, but the most severe continuous training that comes from close personal studies or following daily the thought of a master. To have thought or read for a year in the light of a single idea or group of ideas, by which one's reflections are unified and knit as an integral part into one's life, means an advance in culture, both professional and liberal, that can come from no disconnected studies.

Imperfect as is the Reading Circle beside the more definite and systematic training of professional schools, its service clearly appears upon the side of more accurate thinking, clearer and deeper insights into professional questions, habits of study, and confidence in individual effort.

To the end that such training might be available to teachers who were prevented in any way from attending a normal school, and to continue and supplement the work of those who had enjoyed such training, it was believed that a course of reading that should be chiefly professional, cover but one or a few lines, extend through the year, and appeal to the maturest tastes and experience of the readers, would be effective.

—R. G. BOONE.

Only a very small number of those who attend the institute can attend the normal school, the college, or the university; but all who will may pursue a systematic course of reading in the line of self-improvement. This supple-

mentary agency is now in process of organization under the name of the Reading Circle. The purpose of this new organization is to support earnest and intelligent teachers in their efforts towards self-improvement, and to stimulate the careless and unprogressive to a diligent use of their leisure moments. It is too early to describe the Reading Circle as an actual fact, but it is permissible to discuss the conditions which seem essential to its ultimate success.

1. Teachers need to be told in definite terms, by some authority considered competent, both the quality and the quantity of work that can reasonably be undertaken. Many teachers do not undertake the work of self-improvement because they do not know where to begin and how to proceed, and this degree of support is all the external aid they need.

2. The purpose of the Reading Circle may be very easily defeated by proposing to teachers too formidable a task. It must be recollected that the spare time of the average teacher is very limited, and that he has no confirmed intellectual habits that make study easy and agreeable.

3. As intellectual breadth and literary culture are among the most precious endowments of the teacher, it would evidently be unwise to make the course of reading wholly, or even mainly, professional. If it were necessary to make an absolute choice between a course of reading in general literature and a course of technical instruction, I think preference should be given to the former. But it is not necessary to make such a choice, and so the study of methods and doctrines should be relieved and brightened by readings in literature and history.

— W. H. PAYNE.

A teacher will either grow or decay. To grow, he must read with the definite purpose of adding to his knowledge and increasing his professional interest and enthusiasm. The Teachers' Reading Circle is the very best organization yet devised to promote these ends.

— HIRAM HADLEY.

It is an important step for promoting a better and more extended knowledge of the principles of teaching. Such a knowledge is an essential condition of making the teachers' calling a profession.

— JOSEPH ESTABROOK.

It will increase the educational stature of every man and woman who pursues the course.

— J. H. CANFIELD.

The Teachers' Reading Circle can be utilized for two distinct ends in the successful training of teachers. It may be the means of furnishing a course of reading and study, in educational as well as general literature, to such persons as are preparing to teach but cannot avail themselves of the advantages of a training or normal school. It can be made the means of culture and development to teachers who have completed a course of professional training before entering upon their professional work.

The demands of the curriculum in school and college are so exacting that students have little time while pursuing the regular course for the reading and study of educational literature. The course for the graduated educator should consist largely of the best literature—culture books, history and philosophy, essay and biography, poetry and fiction. Whatever informs, broadens, polishes, and spiritualizes the man makes him the better teacher.

Added to this, there should be read and digested well-chosen books upon the philosophy and history of education. The Reading Circle also affords opportunity for discussion and comparison of educational questions. There is danger that too much will be undertaken, and that the reading will be superficial. The reading of educational literature promotes the growth of the teacher and keeps him from becoming a routine worker, merely. The country teacher, isolated to some extent from contact with the world of fresh thought, especially needs the uplift of a good course of educational reading, systematically pursued. One mission of the Teach-

ers' Reading Circle is to quicken the teacher's thought so as to broaden and intensify his influence with his pupils, and, unconsciously, to inspire them with a love for literature that will lead them to read the books of the great writers in every department of human knowledge.

— DELIA LATHROP WILLIAMS.

Like every other intellectual work, the Circle must appeal directly to the individual. If the books are to help you to a better understanding and comprehension of the principles and practices upon which your profession is founded, *you must read and master them*. This must be largely an individual work. It cannot be done by proxy. It appeals directly to the teachers of the district schools, because they can do the work alone just as well as the teachers of the graded schools. A circle of two, five, or ten earnest readers will undoubtedly prove an inspiration and a help, but no teacher who really desires to improve need wait for this. Get your books and go to work, even if there is not another reader within ten miles of you. It is the cheapest school you can possibly enter. A good book is always worth more than it costs.

— E. A. GASTMAN.

A better indication of progress even than the improvement and increasing number of educational journals is the formation of Teachers' Reading Circles. More may be confidently expected from these associations than from any other educational movement ever started in this country. It makes my heart thrill with joy to read and hear of the good work. . . . These Reading Circles show plainly that the horizon is lifting; that a new day is dawning; that tens of thousands of honest teachers in our land are seeking for the truth that shall set them free. All hail to the Teachers' Reading Circle.

— COL. FRANCIS W. PARKER.

I regard an organized effort among the teachers of the State to study standard authorities upon their work, as

provided in the Reading Circle, the best means of growth available. The selections you have made are excellent, and I trust you may give these books a wide circulation.

—GEORGE T. FAIRCHILD.

The advancement of our teachers means an advancement along the whole line. The management of the Reading Circle is now where it belongs, in the hands of the County Superintendents.

—GEORGE W. WINANS.

No movement of modern times, rapid and startling as have been the changes in school methods, has ever made such simple and economical provisions for self-improvement among teachers, or promises such wide usefulness.

—H. C. SPEER.

A system of culture and education that brings to the home of the individual many of the advantages to be obtained by direct instruction within the walls of a university.

—W. W. JONES.

I heartily indorse a State Reading Circle as one of the means by which, if the course be faithfully followed, teachers can keep abreast of the times.

—JOHN GANNON.

The State Reading Circle is one of the grandest educational movements ever inaugurated in the State.

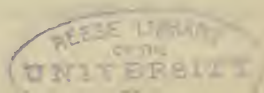
—S. C. GILPATRICK.

CHAPTER XIV

PUPILS' READING CIRCLES

Origin. — Pupils' Reading Circles are an outgrowth of the teachers' organizations, and are generally under the direction of the same boards. Dr. R. G. Boone, in his *History of Education in Indiana* (1892), says of the organization for the young people of that State:

"Of a very different organization and with different aims, but yet supplementary to the common school system as legally constituted, is the Young People's Reading Circle. After discussion by the State Teachers' Association, and upon the favorable report of a committee appointed to consider the question, the circle was formally organized in 1888. Its management was intrusted to the Board of Directors of the Teachers' Reading Circle. Its plan includes the recommendation of books of five grades (Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Reader grades, and an advanced section), to be read under the direction and constant knowledge of the teachers of those grades. The reading involves no expense to pupils or teachers, other than the purchase of the books. The names of readers are reported to the directory by the local teacher, and to each reader is then issued a membership card. The books may be bought by individual pupils, by the school as a body, by the school authorities for the local library, or by interested patrons. The books once read form, in many communities, the nucleus of school libraries." The membership to date is about 175,000.



Illinois Circle. — At the meeting of the Illinois State Teachers' Association, held in Springfield in December, 1888, by an almost unanimous vote, the association requested the directors of the Teachers' Reading Circle to organize a Pupils' Reading Circle. Accordingly, a course consisting of two grades was arranged for pupils, and the Pupils' Reading Circle was conducted under the same management. At the close of the year 1892, the State Teachers' Association adopted the following recommendations:

"That the Reading Circles be separated at the close of the present school year, June 30, 1893, and that two distinct circles be formed, the Teachers' Circle, under the management of the County Superintendents' Section, and the Pupils' Circle, under the management of the Principals' Section.

"Pursuant to this recommendation, the two circles were separated. The Pupils' Circle was reorganized and the management issued its first circular July 1, 1893."

Iowa Circle. — The Pupils' Reading Circle of Iowa was organized in 1891, in accordance with instructions adopted by the graded school section of the Iowa State Teachers' Association, which was held in Des Moines in January of that year. A committee consisting of Superintendents I. N. Beard of Osceola, Dan Miller of Newton, and J. B. Young of Davenport, selected a Board of five directors, with full power to act.

It is to be noted that the Teachers' and Pupils' Reading Circles of Iowa are under the direction of separate Boards, the organization for teachers being under the control of the County Superintendents' Section, while the organization for pupils is directed by the graded school section. The Pupils' Reading Circle Board adopted a single Reading Circle Board for each of eight grades, beginning with the second year and closing with the ninth. A systematic plan was adopted for interesting teachers in the work. Engraved membership cards of handsome design were supplied to the pupils

joining the circle. Each card contained a portrait of a noted author, together with a sketch of his life and the picture of his residence. Subsequently, a handsome badge of membership was adopted. Diplomas were provided for pupils completing the course. This course remained unchanged until the school year 1894-5, when the work was extended to include the years of the high school course, and was divided into two sections, one including the grades from the second to the eighth years, and the other being known as the High School Division.

Michigan Circle. — The Pupils' Reading Circle of Michigan was organized under the direction of the State Teachers' Association in Grand Rapids in December, 1891. Like the organizations for pupils in Iowa and in Illinois, it is under the direction of a distinct Board, having no connection with the State Teachers' Reading Circle. It was at first arranged to have a separate book for each of the school grades from the second year to the ninth. For the school year 1894-5 two important changes have been made. An alternative book has been adopted for each of the eight grades of the original course, and the work has been extended to cover the four years of high school work. Membership cards, badges, and diplomas, have been provided.

South Dakota Circle. — The Pupils' Reading Circle of South Dakota is under the direction of the Teachers' Reading Circle Board, and was established in 1892. The course was originally constituted to cover nine years of school work, beginning with the second, but it has been extended to include an advanced section for high schools. An alternative book for each of the grammar grades was adopted for the year 1894-5.

Kansas and Nebraska Circles. — The Pupils' Reading Circles of Kansas and Nebraska were also established in 1892. Each covers eight grades and supplies one book for each grade. They are conducted by the Teachers' Reading Circle Boards.

Oklahoma Circle. — The Pupils' Reading Circle of Oklahoma was established in 1894, and is under the direction

of the Territorial Board of Education. Its course consists of nine books, one for each school year, beginning with the second.

The foregoing presentation is not complete, for organizations similar to those described have been established in other States; there are also some independent local and general associations for the home reading of pupils.

Representative Courses. — Representative courses of the Pupils' Reading Circle in various States for the school year 1894-5, are as follows:

Year or Grade.	Books.
MICHIGAN.	
Second Grade	{ <i>Johonnot's Friends in Feathers and Fur.</i> <i>Johonnot's Book of Cats and Dogs.</i>
Third Grade	{ <i>Johonnot's Grandfather's Stories.</i> <i>Johonnot's Stories of Heroic Deeds.</i>
Fourth Grade	{ <i>McGuffey's Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred.</i> <i>Hooker's Child's Book of Nature.</i> Part I.
Fifth Grade	{ <i>Eggleston's First Book in American History.</i> <i>Scribner's Geographical Reader.</i>
Sixth Grade	{ <i>McGuffey's Living Creatures of Water, Land, and Air.</i> <i>Hooker's Child's Book of Nature.</i> Part II.
Seventh Grade	{ <i>Johonnot's Stories of Other Lands.</i> <i>Scott's Ivanhoe.</i>
Eighth Grade	{ <i>Johonnot's Neighbors with Claws and Hoofs.</i> <i>Herrick's Plant Life.</i> (Curious Forms.)

The pupil has his choice between the two books mentioned in each grade.

Year or Grade.

Books.

ADVANCED COURSE. HIGH SCHOOL DIVISION.

First Year (Ninth Grade) . .	{	Irving's <i>Sketch Book</i> .
	{	Scott's <i>Lady of the Lake</i> .
Second Year (Tenth Grade) . .	{	Shakspeare's <i>Julius Cæsar</i> .
	{	Scott's <i>Ivanhoe</i> .
Third Year (Eleventh Grade) . .	{	Macaulay's <i>Second Essay on the Earl of Chatham</i> .
	{	Shakspeare's <i>Merchant of Venice</i> .
	{	<i>Sir Roger de Coverley Papers</i> .
Fourth Year (Twelfth Grade) . .	{	Emerson's <i>American Scholar</i> .
	{	Arnold's <i>Sohrab and Rustum</i> .
	{	Dowden's <i>Shakspeare</i> .

ILLINOIS.

Second Grade	{	Scudder's <i>Fables and Folk Stories</i> .
	{	Andersen's <i>Fairy Tales</i> . Part II.
Third Grade	{	Ruskin's <i>King of the Golden River</i> .
	{	Andrews' <i>Seven Little Sisters</i> .
Fourth Grade	{	Hawthorne's <i>Wonder Book</i> .
	{	Kingsley's <i>Water Babies</i> .
Fifth Grade	{	Scott's <i>Tales of a Grandfather</i> .
	{	Coe's <i>Our American Neighbors</i> .
	{	Franklin's <i>Autobiography</i> .
	{	Coe's <i>Modern Europe</i> .

ADVANCED COURSE.

Bulkley's *Fairy Land of Science*.
 Mitchell's *About Old Story-tellers*.
 Souvestre's *An Attic Philosopher in Paris*.
 Ball's *Star Land*.

IOWA.

Second Year	Æsop's <i>Fables</i> .
Third Year	Andersen's <i>Fairy Tales</i> , First Series.
Fourth Year	Fry's <i>Brooks and Brook Basins</i> .
Fifth Year	{ Jane Andrews' <i>Ten Boys</i> .
	{ Jane Andrews' <i>Seven Little Sisters</i> .

Year or Grade.	Books.
Sixth Year	{ Ruskin's <i>King of the Golden River</i> . Montgomery's <i>Beginner's American History</i> .
Seventh Year	{ Martineau's <i>Peasant and the Prince</i> . <i>Franklin's Life</i> , written by himself.
Eighth Year	{ Lamb's <i>Tales from Shakspeare</i> . Francillon's <i>Gods and Heroes</i> .

ADVANCED COURSE. HIGH SCHOOL DIVISION.

First Year (Ninth Grade) . .	{ Irving's <i>Sketch Book</i> . <i>Sir Roger de Coverley Papers</i> .
Second Year (Tenth Grade) .	{ Shakspeare's <i>Julius Cæsar</i> . Scott's <i>Marmion</i> .
Third Year (Eleventh Grade) .	{ Macaulay's <i>Second Essay on the Earl of Chatham</i> . Shakspeare's <i>Merchant of Venice</i> . Scott's <i>Ivanhoe</i> .
Fourth Year (Twelfth Grade) .	{ Emerson's <i>American Scholar</i> . Arnold's <i>Sohrab and Rustum</i> . Dowden's <i>Shakspeare</i> .

SOUTH DAKOTA.

First Year	Johonnot's <i>Book of Cats and Dogs</i> .
Second Year	{ Johonnot's <i>Friends in Feathers and Fur</i> .
Third Year.	Johonnot's <i>Grandfather's Stories</i> .
Fourth Year	{ McGuffey's <i>Familiar Animals and their Wild Kindred</i> . Johonnot's <i>Curious Flyers, Creepers, and Swimmers</i> .
Fifth Year	{ Eggleston's <i>First Book in American History</i> . Johonnot's <i>Stories of our Country</i> .
Sixth Year	{ McGuffey's <i>Living Creatures of Water, Land, and Air</i> . Scribner's <i>Geographical Reader and Primer</i> .

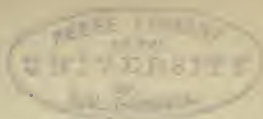
Year or Grade.	Books.
Seventh Year	{ <i>Johonnot's Stories of Other Lands.</i> <i>Dickens' Child's History of Eng-</i> <i>land.</i>
Eighth Year	{ <i>Johonnot's Neighbors with Claws</i> <i>and Hoofs.</i> <i>Lockwood's Animal Memoirs.</i> <i>(Birds.)</i>

ADVANCED COURSE.

First Year (Ninth Grade) . .	{ <i>Johonnot's Ten Great Events in</i> <i>History.</i> <i>Sir Roger de Coverley Papers.</i>
Second Year (Tenth Grade) .	{ <i>Irving's Sketch Book.</i> <i>Scott's Marmion.</i>
Third Year (Eleventh Grade) .	{ <i>Arnold's Sohrab and Rustum.</i> <i>Scott's Ivanhoe.</i>
Fourth Year (Twelfth Grade) .	{ <i>Shakspeare's Merchant of Venice.</i> <i>Dowden's Shakspeare.</i>

IX

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO
PUBLIC OPINION



CHAPTER XV

THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO PUBLIC OPINION

An Ideal Teacher — Of all the descriptive terms applied to teachers, *the mentor* is the most significant and comprehensive in the ideal which it implies. The Mentor of the story¹ was no less than a guardian angel, disguised in human form. This character, as delineated by the immortal Fénelon, is more than an instructor of the youth committed to his charge. He looks beyond the individual to the mass. His eye is ever upon the realm which his pupil is to govern, and his counsels are weighted with responsibility for the trend of popular thought and action.

It may be said that there was a peculiar appropriateness in this, since Mentor, like Fénelon, was engaged in forming the character of a Prince, whose apparent destiny was to rule a kingdom, and whose prospective exercise of sovereign power singled him out for a training different from that required by the youth in the ordinary walks of life. Granted that the tutor of an absolute ruler has an exceptional responsibility, this ideal, nevertheless, is a standard for the teachers of the world.

Who shall say what men in any rising generation are to leave the deepest impress upon the people of their age?

¹ The character of Mentor is portrayed by Fénelon, one of the greatest of French prose writers, in his story of *Télémaque*. Fénelon was the teacher of the heir presumptive of the French kingdom, the grandson of Louis XIV., and the story was written as an aid to the training of the Prince. In the characters of Mentor and his pupil, *Télémaque*, were

Did the early teachers of Lincoln or Grant, of Washington or Jefferson or Jackson, foresee the careers of these men? In Shenstone's familiar picture of "genius in its infancy," in the village school,

" — sagacious foresight points to show
A little bench of heedless Bishops here,
And there a Chancellor in embryo,
Or bard sublime."

The Teacher and the State — The influence of the teacher in the State is recognized in a noted saying of Lord Brougham, which has become proverbial throughout the English-speaking world:

"Let the soldier be abroad if he will; he can do nothing in this age. There is another personage abroad — a person less imposing in the eyes of some, perhaps insignificant. The *schoolmaster* is abroad; and I trust to him, armed with his primer, against the soldier in full military array."

"Let us thank God," says Daniel Webster, "that we live in an age when something has influence besides the bayonet, and when the sternest authority does not venture to encounter the scorching power of public reproach. . . . Mind is the great lever of all things; human thought is the process by which human ends are ultimately answered; and the diffusion of knowledge, so astonishing in the last half century, has rendered innumerable minds, variously gifted by nature, competent to be competitors or fellow-workers on the theater of intellectual operation. From these causes, important improvements have taken place in the personal condition of individuals. Generally speaking, mankind are not only better fed and better clothed, but they are able

really mirrored the great and good Fénelon himself and his royal charge. The word *mentor* has become fixed in our language as a term expressive of the tenderest affection and the deepest reverence for a teacher, counselor, and exemplar.

also to enjoy more leisure; they possess more refinement and more self-respect. A superior tone of education, manners, and habits prevails. This remark, most true in its application to our own country, is also partly true when applied elsewhere."

John Milton wrote: "I call, therefore, a complete, generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both public and private, of peace and of war."

"Men and nations are as they are taught," says B. C. Hobbs. "As a people elevate and sustain their educators, so will their educators be found, in turn, the great instrumentality which brings them intelligence, freedom, prosperity, and peace, and in the end true honor and glory. The time has passed when the teacher should be considered a fit subject for the ridicule of the essayist. States and nations must see that where the work of the common school is well done, there are pleasant homes, industry, happiness, and wealth. Contentment comes to the laborer when he sees that worthy, intelligent, God-fearing men and women are molding the minds of his children for useful and happy lives."

The Teacher's Far-reaching Personal Influence. — In one of Sir Robert S. Ball's popular juvenile lectures there is a startling illustration of the transmission of the waves of light upon the ether of the interstellar spaces. "Suppose," says Ball, "that there are astronomers residing on worlds amid the stars, and that they have sufficiently powerful telescopes to view this globe, what do you think they will observe? They will not see our earth as it is at present; they will see us as we were two years ago. There are stars from which, if England could now be seen, the whole of the country would be observed at this present moment to be in a great state of excitement at a very auspicious event. Distant astronomers might observe a great procession in London amid the enthusiasm of a nation, and they could watch

the coronation of a youthful queen.¹ There are other stars still further off, from which, if the inhabitants had good enough telescopes, they would now see a mighty battle² in progress not far from Brussels; they would see one army dashing itself time after time against the immovable ranks of the other. I do not think they would be able to hear the ever memorable 'Up, guards, and at them!'; but there can be no doubt that there are stars so far away that the rays of light which started from the earth on the day of the battle of Waterloo are only just arriving there. Further off still there are stars from which a bird's-eye view could be taken, at this very moment, of the signing of Magna Charta.³ There are even stars from which England, if it could be seen at all, would now appear, not as the great England we know, but as a country covered by dense forests, and inhabited by painted savages, who waged incessant war with wild beasts that roamed through the island. The geological problems that now puzzle us would be quickly solved, could we only go far enough into space, and had we only powerful enough telescopes. We should then be able to view our earth through the successive epochs of past geological time; we should be actually able to see those great animals whose fossil remains are treasured in our museums, tramping about over the earth's surface, splashing across its swamps, or swimming with broad flippers through its oceans. Indeed, if we could view our own earth reflected from mirrors in the stars, we could still see Moses crossing the Red Sea, or Adam and Eve being expelled from Eden."

This beautiful illustration of the vast distances of the stars is also an exemplification of the indestructibility of force. The universe about us performs the work of a

¹ Queen Victoria, who was crowned in 1837.

² The battle of Waterloo, which was fought in 1815.

³ The great English charter of liberty, which was signed in 1215.

recording angel. It is so in the moral world. Every voice finds a sounding board and every act a mirror. Influences exerted, often unconsciously, remain with far-reaching consequences.

Our echoes roll
From soul to soul,
And grow forever and forever.

James H. Hammond has well said: "In the strife of knowledge, unlike other contests, victory never fails to abide with truth, and the wise and virtuous who find and use this mighty weapon are sure of their reward. It may not come soon. Years, ages, centuries may pass away, and the gravestone may have crumbled above the head that should have worn the wreath. But to the eye of faith, the vision of the imperishable and inevitable halo that shall enshrine the memory is forever present, cheering and sweetening toil, and compensating for privation. And it often happens that the great and heroic mind, unnoticed by the world, buried apparently in profoundest darkness, sustained by faith, works out the grandest problems of human progress, working under broad rays of brightest light—light furnished by that inward and immortal lamp which, when its mission upon earth has closed, is trimmed anew by angels' hands, and placed among the stars of heaven."

The new science of sociology, which is receiving so large a share of the attention of thoughtful persons at the present time, traces to their elements the influences which direct the social mass. A few paragraphs from a recent work¹ on the subject will be of interest here:

Guiding Centers, or Authorities, in Society.—"At a first superficial glance, society seems a mere mass of independent individuals, moving freely as suits the whim of each, certainly without physical coherence, and apparently lacking a

¹ Small & Vincent's *Introduction to the Study of Society*.

unifying principle. We know, however, that there are psychical forces which maintain the structures and motive the activities of the social organism. . . . There is a grouping of individuals about centers of influence or authority. By this arrangement social units sustain orderly relations to society as a whole, and come under the control of coördinating agencies. The term *authority* is here employed in its widest sense, to describe *any* influence or person having recognized psychical power over social groups, large or small. It is by no means to be limited to politically constituted officials."

The Basis of Authority in Society. — "The main sources of general authority in society are individual mental ability, reputation, personal or inherited, and the hold of social groups and organs on popular favor. Personal leadership is a well-known phenomenon of authority. Certain individuals, by virtue of their known attainments, the strength of their personalities, the fame which these elements have won for them, sometimes by reason of their very names, gather and influence larger or smaller groups of followers."

Real Leaders not Necessarily Conspicuous. — "The power behind the throne" is often the real governing power. The true leader of men is he who understands men, and is able to direct the forces which govern society. The really influential teacher should exert his influence unostentatiously — it may be even secretly at times. "Leadership is not always personal, but is often exercised by social organs. . . . Those who seek to begin a social movement by winning the confidence and convincing the reason of the appropriate authorities, pursue the most direct, though not always the easiest, method."

The Interaction of Influence. — The force of personal influence, which sociologists designate as "authority," is itself acted upon by the public. He who would influence the mass must be influenced by the mass. "The much-abused and in itself dubious phrase, 'keeping in touch with the

public,' implies another aspect of authority which deserves careful study. Not only is authority positively exerted upon its peculiar public, but that public in turn reacts upon and modifies the authority itself. By this process of mutual reaction, social knowing, feeling, and willing are produced. The successful leader is he who is constantly in such close and sympathetic relations with his public that they are always responsive to his suggestions and recommendations. . . . The reaction of public opinion upon authority makes social control a most delicate and difficult task. . . . Authority exercises a positive influence, or leadership, upon those under its control, who, in turn, react upon and modify the forces originally exerted. . . . The initiative in social movements does not always come from the side of authority. When the leader fails to recognize the existence of conditions which demand action, he is spurred to effort by the influences which his public bring to bear. The social reformer, if repulsed by authority, turns to the public and attempts to arouse consciousness, and thus to exert pressure on the incredulous or remiss leader. Letters to newspapers, petitions, and personal communications to officials, mass meetings, etc., are among the means employed by the public to influence authority." The teacher whose personal influence constitutes a part of the "authority" in society must study the temper of the public. This need not involve any sacrifice of principle to expediency. Concessions may be made in minor matters, in order to secure practical coöperation in things which are more important.

Practical Results more Important than Theory. — There is a very important lesson on practical management in the famous resolution of the British Parliament, which declared the throne vacant in 1689. Macaulay, the English historian, dwells upon it as something full of significance to practical men. "This resolution," says Macaulay, "has been many times subjected to criticism as minute and severe as was

ever applied to any sentence written by man; and perhaps never was a sentence written by man which would bear such criticism less. It is idle, however, to examine the memorable words as we should examine a chapter of Aristotle or of Hobbes. Such words are to be considered not as words but as deeds. If they effect that which they are intended to effect, they are rational, though they may be contradictory. If they fail of attaining their end, they are absurd, though they carry demonstration with them. Logic admits of no compromise. The essence of politics is compromise. It is, therefore, not strange that some of the most important and most useful political instruments in the world should be among the most illogical compositions that ever were penned. The object of Somers, of Maynard, and of the other eminent men who shaped this celebrated motion was not to leave to posterity a model of definition and partition, but to make the restoration of a tyrant impossible, and to place on the throne a sovereign under whom law and liberty might be secure. This object they attained by using language which, in a philosophical treatise, would justly be reprehended as inexact and confused. They cared little whether their major¹ agreed with their conclusion, if the major secured two hundred votes and the conclusion two hundred more. In fact, the one beauty of the resolution is its inconsistency. There was a phrase for every subdivision of the majority. . . . To the real statesman the single important clause was that which declared the

¹ The syllogism, or logical form of an argument, consists of three propositions—the major premise, the minor premise, and the conclusion, as in the following example:

Major Premise: All men are mortal.

Minor Premise: John is a man.

Conclusion: John is mortal.

If the syllogism be regular and one of the premises be untrue, the conclusion will be untrue, though strictly logical as a deduction from the premises. On the other hand, if the premises be true, the conclusion may also be true, though it may not logically follow.

throne vacant; and, if that clause could be carried, he cared little by what preamble it might be introduced."

Public Opinion Relating to the School.—Whatever his position, the teacher will require to exercise tact and care in his relations with the community. Perhaps in no other position in life is a person so liable to become impatient of public opinion. The teacher feels deeply sensible of the shortness of the time in which the character formation of the pupils is in his hands, and becomes over anxious for the results. He is liable to become discouraged because the public do not at once respond to all his plans in relation to the school. He must remember that "confidence is a plant of slow growth," yet when it has been secured, it is a powerful coadjutor. When wrong, public opinion can be reformed only by persistent, patient effort. Reasonable plans must be proposed, and they must be such as to secure the assent of the common mind, which readily responds to reasons within its grasp when they are supported by the sense of right. Public opinion cannot be forced, and manifestations of impatience often neutralize the efforts put forth to reform it. "Rome was not built in a day." "The years go wrong, the ages never." The good seed sown to-day may not ripen fully in the time of the sower, yet shall it grow in due time and yield both flowers and fruit; and the fruit shall be after its kind—sweet and pleasant to the taste and nourishing to the people.

The officers who appoint the teacher are directly responsible to the public; and when they fail to carry out the ideal of school work formed in the public mind, the citizens will elect others more in accord with the public will. The teacher, as the executive of a Board, should not be liable to frequent change. He should counsel the Board and discuss matters freely; but when the Board, acting within its proper sphere, has decided what is to be done, he should execute its purposes cheerfully, promptly, and fully, or he should resign. The teacher should not feel compelled to resign,

however, on a mere difference of opinion, but only when some policy which he is required to execute is opposed to his conscience, his honor, his manhood, and, in his deliberate judgment, harmful to his higher usefulness as a teacher. In such a case he represents more than his own individual interests.

The methods for molding public opinion are various, and are variously exercised. Sometimes the teacher quietly interests and animates a few leading spirits in the community. Sometimes he invokes the power of the press, either by judicious communications over his own signature, or by guiding the pens of others. His social intercourse with the citizens should be such as to win respect for his views and suggestions. Whatever the elements of "authority" in a community, a shrewd student of human nature will discern them sooner or later, and he will learn to touch the hidden springs of power. Sometimes a teacher of strongest influence is found to be quiet and unostentatious in manner, keeping himself in the background, while only the instrumentalities which he deftly handles and directs are seen by the public.

The influence of one mind upon others cannot be formulated into an exact science. Often its exercise is wholly inscrutable and unaccountable. Human likes and dislikes, prejudices, and partialities, attractions and repulsions, have often no tangible or comprehensible reason for their existence. Often they are scarcely known to their possessors; yet they play an all-important part in human society.

The teacher should be a student of character. He should know men, as well as children. He should at all times exercise the tact which is consistent with truth and frankness, and which wins rather than repels the social forces of the community.

The Teacher as a Man of Business. — Business men are apt to judge a teacher by the character of his business transactions. "Does he meet his obligations promptly?"

"Is he reliable?" These are questions they are certain to ask. As a class, teachers are not distinguished for their wealth; but this, after all, is not necessary to respectable standing in the business world. Is the teacher honest and prudent in his personal and family economy? Does he live within his income? Does he take chances as to his ability to meet payments? Does he "stand off" his creditors? Are his representations to be relied upon?

Supposing that in the matter of truthfulness in his representations, of prudence in management, and of faithfulness to his promises and obligations, he is unexceptionable, there yet remain other considerations which the business men of the community will weigh in making their estimate of him. Is he accustomed to the methodical habits of the business world, in so far as he is concerned with it? Can he draw a check or a note properly? Does he offer to give receipts for payments made to him, and does he expect to receive like acknowledgments of his payments? Does he address his business letters with sufficiently specific directions? Are his orders for merchandise always definite and intelligible to the salesman? In sending a telegram, an express parcel, a money order, a freight shipment, does he indicate a ready familiarity with the rules and usages of such transactions? Does he appreciate the value of a business man's time? Does he carry a well-regulated watch? Has he a fair knowledge of the arrival and departure of the principal railway trains, of the closing of the mails, and of the distance of neighboring towns?

It is by these little matters that the teacher will be largely judged in business circles. He need not, he should not be merely a passive recipient of the influence of the business world. His own influence will have a bearing upon the business habits of other citizens with whom he comes in contact.

The Teacher as a Patriot. — Patriotism does not consist in the unfurling of flags and the utterance of civic senti-

ment, nor are these the best and final tests of its genuineness. The true patriot pays his taxes without evasion or subterfuge. He exercises his right to vote. He is ready to sink partisanship, if necessary, in his support of the measures for the public welfare. He is the upholder of law and order. He is ready to perform all the duties of good citizenship. The really patriotic citizen is the true American, and his love of country is manifested in many ways. Whatever his birth or ancestry, he is an American in sentiment, as well as in legal designation. He believes in American institutions, and does not speak of them with flippant disparagement. Nor does he speak patronizingly of them. He believes in the greatness of his country, and in its future.

The Teacher as a Philanthropist.—Teachers have exceptional opportunity for the exercise of philanthropy, especially in the cities and towns. As the population increases, there is a growing number of unfortunate persons who need assistance and counsel, and who suffer for want of these. The local provisions for the aid of the penniless are often inadequately executed by the proper officers. There are, moreover, many unfortunate and helpless persons who refuse to acknowledge themselves as paupers, and hence conceal their bitter need, sometimes preferring even death to the disgrace of becoming a public charge. The indiscriminate bestowal of money upon mendicants is not to be commended. Except for the immediate relief of the most pressing wants, gifts of money do not meet the case.

The teacher who has the generous confidence of his pupils is in a position to know where a little assistance would relieve untold anxiety and distress; where a word of advice or suggestion would prevent a family catastrophe. A word from him will often secure a coveted employment to a person in need of work. A suggestion from him to the generous men who give while they live, will direct into channels of true charity sums which would otherwise be blindly given to the importunate, irrespective of the

merits of their representations. Quietly, and without wounding the feelings of any, the thoughtful teacher often arranges little presents of needed articles, purchased with contributions that are not felt by their donors. In instances of local distress which appeal strongly to the generosity of the public, schools, like churches, have arranged, sometimes, to receive contributions of needful things from those who are competent to give. In some schools, where each child has contributed but a single potato or a single roll, the aggregate has been a considerable supply of the vegetable and the bread, which has found its way to the needy.

Apart from the immediate results of such philanthropic efforts on the part of the teacher in securing the things needful to the unfortunate and distressed, there is an educational value in the training of schoolchildren in acts of generosity and benevolence. Children organized for a good purpose soon become thoughtful in regard to the consequences of their action. The teacher who can enlist the energy of the children for such a purpose, prevents in a degree the expenditure of that energy for evil. The skillful teacher organizes energy for good; the careless teacher allows it to run to waste.

As a result of the teacher's suggestion, pupils sometimes organize themselves into little societies for various purposes. Sometimes they may form a general society with committees on various subjects, as, for instance, temperance, the prevention of cruelty to animals, care for the aged and the poor, personal purity, special lines of reading, etc. Where the conditions are favorable, the plan is excellent. The things of importance in life's best work will engage the attention of the pupils in such a society at a time when character is taking a "holding turn." For a case in point, a brief sketch written by a stranger to a local newspaper tells of a young orphan girl—a teacher—far from home scenes, who is remembered for having taken an active part in every good word and work. She organized her pupils as

an auxiliary to the society for the prevention of cruelty to animals, and for personal purity in thought, in word, and in deed. She walked a long way weekly to teach in a Sunday school where she believed she could do the most good. She performed all her duties well, and neglected nothing of her regular work as a consequence of her other assumed duties. She died at her work, and the public mourned and lamented. She had become a part of the public life for good, and her works still live in the community and will grow as the seed planted by the water brooks.

It is a mistake to suppose that systematic philanthropy should be left to the wealthy. Many of the most notable philanthropists of the world were poor — some of them very poor. “The Man of Ross”¹ possessed a very moderate income for a person of his station in life. Indeed, it might well be a matter of surprise that his means sufficed to maintain him. Yet what a work was performed by him in an humble way, and how his example lives as an inspiration to all of the Anglo-Saxon race! So valuable is the lesson of such a life, that the following verses from Pope will not be deemed out of place in this connection :

“ Who hung with woods yon mountain’s sultry brow ?
From the dry rock, who bade the waters flow ?
Not to the skies in useless columns tossed,
Or in proud falls magnificently lost,
But clear and artless, pouring, through the plain,
Health to the sick, and solace to the swain.
Whose causeway parts the vale with shady rows ?
Whose seats the weary traveler repose ?
Who taught that heaven-directed spire to rise ?
‘ *The Man of Ross*,’ each lisping babe replies.
Behold the market place with poor o’erspread ;
The Man of Ross divides the weekly bread ;

¹ The real name of The Man of Ross was John Kyrle. He died in 1724, at the age of ninety years, and was buried in the parish church of Ross, in Herefordshire, England.

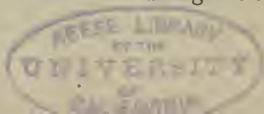
He feeds yon almshouse, neat, but void of state,
 Where age and want sit smiling at the gate ;
 Him portioned maids, apprenticed orphans blessed,
 The young who labor, and the old who rest.
 Is any sick, *The Man of Ross* relieves,
 Prescribes, attends, the medicine makes, and gives.
 Is there a variance, enter but his door,
 Balked are the courts, and contest is no more.
 Despairing quacks with curses fled the place,
 And vile attorneys, now a useless race.

Thrice happy man, enabled to pursue
 What all so wish, but want the power to do ;
 Oh, say, what sums that generous hand supply ?
 What mines, to swell that boundless charity ?

Of debts, and taxes, wife and children clear,
 This man possessed — *five hundred pounds a year*.
 Blush, grandeur, blush ! Proud courts, withdraw your blaze !
 Ye little stars, hide your diminished rays !

And what ? No monument, inscription, stone ?
 His race, his form, his name almost unknown."

The Teacher in Society.—The teacher should not be a recluse. "Society," says Dewey, "is the great educator. More than universities, more than schools, more than books, society educates. Nature is the schoolhouse, and many lessons are written upon its walls ; but man is the effective teacher. Parents, relatives, friends, associates, social manners, maxims, morals, worships, the daily example, the fireside conversation, the casual interview, the spirit that breathes through the whole atmosphere of life—these are the powers and influences that train the mass of mankind. Even books, which are daily assuming a larger place in human training, are but the influence of man on man. It is evident that one of the leading and ordained means by which men are raised in the scale of knowledge and virtue is the conversation, example, influence of men superior to themselves. It seems, if one may say so, to be the purpose, the intent, the *effort* of nature—of Providence—to bring men together."



The teacher's manner in society should be that of a man among men. "The so-called practical men," says Ralph Waldo Emerson, "sneer at speculative men, as if, because they speculate or see, they could do nothing. I have heard it said that the clergy—who are always more universally than any other class, the scholars of their day—are addressed as women; that the rough spontaneous conversation of men they do not hear, but only a mincing and diluted speech. They are often virtually disfranchised; and, indeed, there are advocates for their celibacy. As far as this is true of the studious classes, it is not just and wise."

Much has been written concerning the teacher's social position in other countries. D'Arcy Thompson, who resigned his position as Classical Master in the Edinburgh Academy to become a Professor in the Queen's College at Galway, is severe in his strictures upon the treatment which the most cultured and worthy schoolmasters of Scotland receive in social life. In this country, where to a greater extent than elsewhere the social position of the individual is based upon his individual merit and worth, and paralyzing notions of social caste do not obtain, the social position of the schoolmaster is very much what he chooses to make it.

The teacher should be qualified to hold a respectable place in representative social circles of his community. He is not expected to be a "society man" in the usual flippant sense of that term; but society will quickly hold him to account for any coarseness of manner and disregard of the amenities of polite society. There is a sense in which the adage "When you are at Rome, do as the Romans do" is a correct guide to conduct. In whatever society the teacher may find himself, he should avoid being conspicuous by reason of contrast with others. He can concede something to local usage, even when it may not coincide exactly with his ideal of absolute propriety.

To bring his profession into discussion at inopportune times and places is not more justifiable than "shop talk" of

merchants would be in the parlors of their friends. If the teacher has acquired through long intercourse with pupils a professional tone and bearing that are distinctive and marked, he should avoid manifesting these in society. The manner of a learned pundit and a walking cyclopædia does not add to a person's power of pleasing.

Familiarity with good society is an aid to the teacher in many ways. Social gatherings offer him needful recreations. In representative society they extend his acquaintance and influence among people who possess strength in the community. While polite society benefits the teacher, it may receive benefits from him in return. The teacher is supposed to be a person of culture and refinement, and to possess information and an acquaintance with many matters which lend grace to conversation and to other forms of social entertainment.

The Teacher and the Nation — Thus far the individual influence of the teacher upon the community in which he resides, has been considered in some detail. The collective influence of teachers as a class upon the national life is a theme full of hope for the Republic. There is a great work to be done in influencing society at large, and in raising the standard of American citizenship.

"To all this national development," says Samuel Eliot, "there have been, and there still are, very serious drawbacks. They spring to a great degree from the development itself. Corruption follows hard upon growth in society, as in nature, and its effects are as fatal in one as in the other. Wealth grows, and the passion for it grows faster. Labor struggles not only with capital, but with labor; trade is tainted with dishonest practices; life itself is lowered by the readiness with which men forsake its higher callings because they are less lucrative than the lower. Power increases, and the lust for it increases likewise. Candidates for office stoop to mean conditions. Office holders stoop yet lower, and whether in town, city, State, or national government, degrade themselves

and their authority. For some of our forms of disgrace, new words, or words with new meanings, are required, and strangers and children ask what is a *ring*, or a *lobby*, and sometimes fail to understand it when explained. If the results of political corruption were confined to those who indulge in it, the injury would be far less formidable. But they spread on every side, they infect our institutions, they poison the spirit of our people. These evils are not new. They were lamented when the Nation was born, in the very throes of the Revolution, while such as loved the country were pledging to it their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honor, and others were making money out of its trials, or turning its agonies to their own preferment. It is only that the evils are more apparent than they used to be. They have a larger area, a more numerous following; and so the shadows which they cast seem to shut out more of the light that should be shining. There is but one way to dispel them — by consecrating the Nation to a higher service, and giving ourselves to it, one and all.”

OUTLINES OF READING CIRCLE
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OUTLINES OF READING CIRCLE WORK



FIRST MONTH, pp. 5-42

I. DUTIES OF PARENTS

1. The meeting of the American Institute of Instruction in 1838. 2. The address by David Perkins Page; its influence on American education. 3. A new factor in educational administration. 4. Need of sympathy between teachers and parents. 5. Causes of misunderstanding. 6. How to avoid these evils. 7. Duties of parents. 8. Underestimation of the teacher's services. 9. Inadequate compensation of teachers. 10. Need of proper environment. 11. Public encouragement of school celebrations. 12. Supervision of the child's general reading.

SECOND MONTH, pp. 45-70

II. DUTIES OF TEACHERS

1. High ideals. 2. Intercourse with parents. 3. Truth and frankness. 4. Tact. 5. The teacher an adviser. 6. The teacher's relations to school officers.

III. DUTIES OF SCHOOL OFFICERS

1. Absolute and relative duties. 2. The school officer and the teacher. 3. The teacher's authority. 4. Needs of

the community. 5. Personal responsibility. 6. Officers responsible for teachers' recompense. 7. Dignity and common sense. 8. Good tools and appointments.

THIRD MONTH, pp. 73-120

IV. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE¹

1. Site and surroundings. 2. Lighting for rooms of high ceilings. 3. Lighting for rooms of low ceilings. 4. Shades and blinds. 5. The arrangement of the schoolroom. 6. Toilet rooms and closets. 7. Desks and seating. 8. Blackboards and wainscoting. 9. Wardrobes. 10. Doors. 11. City school grounds. 12. An eight-room building for city schools. 13. Repair of old buildings.

V. SCHOOL HYGIENE

1. Ventilation; a lesson from *Roderick Hume*. 2. Ventilation by means of windows. 3. Ventilation by means of shafts.² 4. What is a sufficient room space for each pupil?

¹ This chapter, on account of its great importance, has been the subject of much discussion. It will be noted that Mr. Clark assumes that the smaller schoolhouses of the country will be "low-studded," and that the true principles of school architecture will not be applied so generally to these buildings as to the more important school edifices of cities. Whatever the concession made in this chapter to the conditions which the writer finds or assumes, the teacher should acquaint himself with what is deemed most desirable. There are very many school officers who will not prefer the second best, even in the construction of their smaller school buildings, but will give heed to correct principles in school architecture, whether applied to small or to large buildings. A compromise will often result in a construction which will neither properly light nor sufficiently ventilate a schoolroom.

² Commenting upon the trumpet-shaped box or pipe of a register (p. 112), a hygienist remarks as follows :

"I do not agree with the writer. I would enlarge the opening, making it long and narrow, and inclining upward, instead of funnel-shaped; because in the narrow place the warm air will spread out and come in with less force, while the funnel-shaped opening will allow the cold air to rush in and form an eddy in the mouth of it, crowding the warm air to the top, and still have about the same force. In constructing an inlet into the room, I would carry the warm air duct entirely to the top of the

5. The normal temperature of the schoolroom.¹ 6. Furnace heating. 7. Steam heating. 8. Hot water heating. 9. Sanitary supervision of the schoolhouse.² 10. Cleanliness of the pupils. 11. Care of the eyes. 12. Position at desk; standing and walking. 13. The pupil's food and drink.

FOURTH MONTH, pp. 123-160

VI. ARBOR DAY CELEBRATIONS

1. Origin and history of Arbor Day. 2. Choice of trees. 3. Suggestions for planting. 4. Literary exercises. 5. Indoor exercises. 6. Plant collections. 7. Benefit of Arbor Day celebrations.

VII. THE DICTIONARY, AND HOW TO USE IT

1. Ethics of words. 2. Use of the dictionary in the schoolroom. 3. Webster as a standard. 4. Syllabication. 5. Origin and history of words. 6. Scripture proper names. 7. Foreign phrases. 8. Fictitious persons and places.

room and let the air out against the ceiling, so that the pressure would always be downward. An opening on the floor will allow the foul air from the floor to mingle into the current as it passes upward, and it will form eddies and currents in the room."

The same writer adds: "I think the author ought to argue for all schoolrooms to have a fresh supply of air forced into them by some method or other. I think all school buildings—whether in the country or in the city—ought to have a room especially adapted and well heated with registers on the floor or stoves, and sufficiently large to accommodate a great many persons at once, so that pupils can be thoroughly warm before entering the schoolroom; and the air passing from said room directly out of doors."

¹ In fixing the temperature of the schoolroom there are various matters to be considered—such as the age of the pupil, the dampness or dryness of the atmosphere, etc. Sometimes the temperature should be rather above than below 70°.

² The suggestions relative to the basement can be extended to the space below the floor, in buildings which have no basements. Often this space is entirely closed, and is inaccessible for examination. Means should be supplied for an occasional opening of this space, for investigation and for ventilation.

9. Biographical names. 10. Gazetteer. 11. Abbreviations and contractions. 12. Pronunciation. 13. History of the English language. 14. The choice of a dictionary.

FIFTH MONTH, pp. 163-188

VIII. SCHOOL LIBRARIES

1. The influence of unwholesome literature. 2. The influence of good literature. 3. Need for school libraries. 4. Report of the Committee of Ten. 5. Choice of books. 6. Libraries and bookcases. 7. Library catalogues. 8. A new profession.

IX. SCHOOL MORALS

1. Moral training in the schools. 2. The teacher's responsibility. 3. The discipline of the school. 4. Social duties of school children. 5. Respect for law.

SIXTH MONTH, pp. 191-236

X. SCHOOL ETIQUETTE

1. The meaning of etiquette. 2. The importance of etiquette. 3. The influence of example. 4. Etiquette not a mere system of forms. 5. Facial expression. 6. Manner of speaking. 7. Propriety of speech. 8. Forms of address. 9. Deportment upon the street. 10. The deportment at the school. 11. Care for articles of value. 12. Correspondence. 13. Deportment at meals. 14. Care of the person. 15. Washington's Rules of Civility.

XI. SCHOOL CELEBRATIONS AND OBSERVANCES

1. General holidays and school celebrations. 2. Authors' birthdays. 3. Presentations of portraits. 4. Suggestions for Longfellow's birthday. 5. Some notable birthdays. 6. Birthdays of American statesmen. 7. Suggestions for

Washington's birthday. 8. Suggestions for Lincoln's birthday. 9. Other notable birthdays. 10. School flags and flag days. 11. Suggestions for flag presentation day. 12. What constitutes an American flag. 13. The significance of the colors. 14. Material of the flag. 15. The American shield. 16. Care of the flag. 17. The origin and development of the flag. 18. Music and literature relating to the flag. 19. Appropriate flag days. 20. Other school celebrations. 21. General holidays.

SEVENTH MONTH, pp. 239-264

XII. THE TEACHERS' INSTITUTE

1. The function of the Institute. 2. The first requisite of the teacher. 3. The second requisite. 4. The teacher's "conversion." 5. Instrumental and professional knowledge. 6. A knowledge of educational values. 7. The lines of study for teachers. 8. The limitations of the Teachers' Institute. 9. What the Institute is not. 10. Profitable and unprofitable reviews in Institutes. 11. The more distinct purpose of the Institute. 12. Professional instruction. 13. School management. 14. Psychology applied to the teaching. 15. Instruction in the subject matter of the school course. 16. Difficulties to be encountered. 17. Aims of the Institute. 18. Evening Lectures. 19. The development of the Institute. 20. The influence of the state superintendent. 21. The influence of the county superintendent. 22. The members of the Institute. 23. Special topics of instruction in Institutes; an outline of American Literature.

EIGHTH MONTH, pp. 267-295

XIII. TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES

1. The new profession. 2. The past decade in education. 3. The first State Reading Circles. 4. Discussion of Read-

ing Circle work. 5. State organizations necessary. 6. The maintenance of the Reading Circles. 7. American pedagogical literature. 8. The period of probation. 9. The period of assured permanency. 10. The true origin of the Reading Circles. 11. The influence of the school officer. 12. The present duty. 13. Later tendencies. 14. The value of Reading Circle work. 15. Local meetings. 16. The present trend of Reading Circle work. 17. Notes on Teachers' Reading Circles.

XIV. PUPILS' READING CIRCLES

1. Origin and management. 2. Indiana Circle. 3. Courses and management of Illinois Circle. 4. Plan of Iowa Circle. 5. Membership cards and diplomas. 6. High School division. 7. Michigan Circle. 8. Kansas and Nebraska Circles. 9. Oklahoma Circle. 10. Representative Courses.

NINTH MONTH, pp. 299-316

XV. THE TEACHER'S RELATION TO PUBLIC OPINION

1. An ideal teacher. 2. The teacher and the State. 3. The teacher's far-reaching personal influence. 4. Guiding centers, or authorities, in society. 5. The basis of authority in society. 6. Real leaders not necessarily conspicuous. 7. The interaction of influence. 8. Practical results more important than theory. 9. Public opinion relating to the school. 10. The teacher as a man of business. 11. The teacher as a patriot. 12. The teacher as a philanthropist. 13. The teacher in society. 14. The teacher and the Nation.

INDEX



INDEX

- Abbott's Histories, Value of, 174, 175.
Abbreviations in Webster, 157, 158.
Adams, Charles Francis, address to teachers, 167, 168.
Adams, John Quincy, Birthday of, 228; Character of, 262.
Adams, Samuel, noted orator, 261.
Addison, J., Extracts from, 135, 137.
Address, Forms of, 196, 197.
Aims of Teacher's Institute, 255, 256.
Alcott, Louisa M., Birthday of, 256.
Aldrich, T. B., Extract from, 134.
Allen, Dr. Jerome, on Reading Circle work, 271, 272.
Alphabetical catalogues, 178, 179.
American authors, Birthdays of, 212.
American flag, origin, size, colors, etc., 230-235.
American Forestry Congress, Arbor Day appointed by, 124.
American Institute of Instruction, 5.
American literature, Topical exercise on, 260-264.
American pedagogical literature, 275.
American shield, 231.
American statesmen, Birthdays of, 213.
Anglo-Saxon words, 154.
Appropriate Flag Days, 234.
Arbor Day, 37-39, 235.
Arbor Day celebrations, 123, 146; originated by Nebraska, 123; adopted by other states, 123; benefits of, 123; time of observance, 123, 124; Authors' Grove founded, 124; aid of B. G. Northrop, 124; legally appointed, 124; Good effects of, 125; choice of trees, 125, 126; planting trees, 126-129; literary exercises, 129, 130; appropriate selections, 130-140; indoor exercises, 140; plant collections, 140-146; Benefits of, 146.
Architecture, School, see School Architecture, 73-104.
Aristotle, ancient teacher, 58.
Arrangement of schools, 82-104.
Articles of value, Care for, 198, 199.
Atmospheric poisons, Children's susceptibility to, 106, 107.
Attendance, Importance of regular, 20-22.
Authority of school affairs, Limits of, 60, 61.
Authority of Teachers, 59-63; requisite for good work, 59; teacher *in loco parentis*, 60; not to be questioned, 60; not delegated by school boards, 60, 61; inherent rights, 60; special functions of teacher, 61, 62; official dictation unwise, 62, 63; teacher a mere operative, 63.
Authors' birthday celebrations, 208.
Authors' Grove, 124.
Authors of prose, fiction, etc., 263, 264.
Bacon, Leonard, on juvenile literature, 167.
Bain, on education and psychology, 243.
Ball, Sir Robert S., Astronomical lecture by, 301, 302.
Bancroft, George, Birthday of, 213; Works of, 263.
Bardeen's *Roderick Hume*, 105.
Bay Psalm Book, 261.
Beard, I. N., on Pupils' Reading Circles, 290.
Beecher, Henry Ward, lecture on *The New Profession*, 267.
Benefits of Arbor Day celebrations, 146.
Bible, Extracts from, 131, 132; Pronunciation of proper names in, 155.
Biographical names, 157.
Birthdays, Authors', 208-227; Lincoln's, 214-227; Longfellow's, 209-212; of American statesmen, 213, 228; Washington's, 213, 214.
Blackboards, 86, 98.
Blinds, Advantages and disadvantages of, 79, 80.
Board of Trustees, Establishment of, 55, 56.
Books, abused by school children, 198; Choice of, 174-177; Gail Hamilton on choice of, 176.
Books and Reading for the Young, by Dr. Smart, 169.

- Boone, Dr. R. G., *Education in the United States*, 275; on Pupils' Reading Circles, 289; on Teachers' Institutes, 257; on Teachers' Reading Circles, 284.
- Botany, Advantages of, 146
- Brooks, C. T., Extract from, 130.
- Brougham, Lord, Saying of, 300.
- Bryant, William C., Birthday of, 213; Extracts from, 132, 137; Study of, 262.
- Bunker Hill, American flag at, 231.
- Byron, Lord, Extract from, 134.
- Calhoun, John C., Character of, 262.
- Canfield, J. H., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 286.
- Card catalogues, 179.
- Carlyle, Thomas, Familiarity with, 33; on books, 40.
- Ceiling, Height of, 97.
- Celebrations, Arbor Day, 123-146; birthdays, 208-229; Flag Days, 229-235; general holidays, 235, 236.
- Celebrations and observances, School, 207-236.
- Chartered schools of England, 58.
- Choice of trees for Arbor Day, 125.
- Circulars of Information*, issued at Washington, 171.
- Civility, Washington's rules of, 202-206.
- Clark, T. M., on air shafts, 108-110; on furnace heat, 111-114; on school architecture, 100, 101; on ventilation, 107.
- Class and lecture instruction, Relative advantages of, 251, 252.
- Classification in schools, 14, 20, 21.
- Classified catalogues, 178.
- Clay, Henry, Birthday of, 228; Character of, 262.
- Cleanliness of school buildings, 38, 117, 118; Personal, 201.
- Closets, Arrangement of, etc., 88-92.
- Commencement Day, 235; School officers' duties at, 69; Value of, 69.
- Commission of New England Colleges, 173.
- Committee of Ten, Report of, 172-174.
- Community, Needs of, 63-65.
- Compensation of teachers, Inadequate, 28-34.
- Conquest of Mexico, Conquest of Peru*, Prescott's, 263.
- Consonants, Doubling of final, 151.
- Constitution of the United States*, Composition on, 261.
- Contractions in Webster, 157, 158.
- Contributions to the Science of Education*, Payne's, 256.
- Conversion, Teacher's, 241, 242.
- Cooper, James F., Works of, 263.
- Coöperation, between teachers and parents, 17, 18, 27, 28; Doctrine of, 8; on part of school officers, 64.
- Cornell Agricultural Station, Experiments at, 117.
- Corporal punishment, almost suspended, 187.
- Correspondence, 199.
- Cotton Mather's *Witchcraft*, 261.
- County Association meetings, 66.
- County Superintendent, influence on Teachers' Institute, 258, 259; medium between teacher and Department of Public Instruction, 274.
- Cross sections of wood, 144.
- Culture, Importance of social, 191, 192; Teacher's, 273.
- Currier, Dr. C. Gilman, on School-room Heating, 116, 117; *Practical Hygiene*, 106.
- Cyclopedia, a dictionary on a large scale, 160.
- Days of Bruce*, in connection with history, 169.
- Declaration of Independence*, Composition on, 261.
- Department, on the street and at school, 197, 198; at meals, 200, 201.
- Desks, Arrangement of, 95-97; Right position at, 119.
- Development of State Teachers' Reading Circles, 269-271; of Teachers' Institute, 257, 258.
- Dewy, on teachers in society, 313.
- Diacritical marks, 158.
- Dickens' Dictionary, 160; *Hard Times*, 177.
- Dictionary, Century, 150; Choice of, 159; Dickens', 160; of fiction, 156, 157; Webster's International, 153; Webster's Pictorial, 160; Webster's Unabridged, 155; Worcester's, 264.
- Dictionary and how to use it, 147-160; ethics of words, 147-149; value of English literature, 148; sources of English language, 148 and note; synonyms, 148; misuse of words, 148, 149; in schoolroom, 149; right use of dictionary, 150; Webster as standard, 150-152; various meanings of words, 152; syllabication, 152, 153; origin and history of words, 153-155; folk-lore, 153, 154; words derived from Anglo-Saxon and Norman French, 154; hybrid

- words, 154, 155; Scripture proper names, 155; foreign phrases, 155, 156; names of fiction, 156, 157; biographical names, 157; gazetteer, 157; abbreviations and contractions, 157, 158; pronunciation, 158, 159; history of language, 159; illustrations, 159; choice of dictionary, 159, 160.
- Difficulties of school officers, 65.
- Drake, J. R., on American flag, 233.
- Drinking, Proprieties of, 200.
- Dundas, Henry, Speech of, 155.
- Duties of parents, 11-42; attending school celebrations, 36-39; cleanliness of children, 19, 20; coöperation, 17, 18; dangers of rash judgment, 22-24; duty of sympathy, 25, 26, 27; environment of schools, 35, 36; libraries in schools, 42; regular attendance of children, 20, 22; respect for school laws, 185; responsibility for teacher's recompense, 34; supervision of child's reading, 39-42; supplying school materials, 19; visiting school, 19; willingness to hear truth, 18.
- Duties of school officers, 55-70; absolute duties, 55; at commencements, 69; avoidance of petty economy, 70; caution in selecting teachers, 64; considering needs of community, 64; coöperation with teachers and parents, 64; direction of Teachers' Institutes, 258; encouragement of Reading Circles, 278; necessity of firmness, 64; relation to teacher, 56, 57; responsibility for teacher's salary, 66, 67; supplying good tools, 69, 70.
- Duties of teachers, 16, 45-54; as adviser, 50, 51; as defined in state laws, 58; definition of word, 48, note; duties towards parents, 46-48; duty of frankness, 18, 47, 48; high ideals, 45; in mediæval schools, 58; intercourse with parents, 45-47; mistakes in innovations, 50; need of tact, 48-50; relations to school officers, 51-54.
- E, Dropping of final, 151.
- E Pluribus Unum*, motto of United States, 231.
- Eating, Proprieties of, 200.
- Economy in schools, Petty, 70.
- Eden Park, Arbor Day celebrations in, 124.
- Education in the United States*, Boone's, 275.
- Education, Past decade in, 269; Progress in, 13, 14.
- Edwards on the Will*, 261.
- Electric fans in schools, 111.
- Elimination of silent letters, 151, note.
- Eliot, George, Characters of, 176.
- Eliot, Samuel, on the teacher and the nation, 315, 316.
- Emerson, Ralph W., Birthday of, 212; Extract from, 138; Knowledge of, 33; Study of, 264; the thinker among practical men, 314.
- English Language, History of, 159; Importance of correct use of, 147, 148; Sources of, 148 and note.
- English Literature, Value of, 148.
- Entrances in school buildings, 81, 85.
- Environment, Advice of patrons in regard to, 65; effect on character, 35; Importance of, 34-36.
- Esterbrook, Joseph, on Teachers' Reading Circles, 286.
- Ethics of words, 147-149.
- Etiquette, School, see School Etiquette, 191-206.
- Etymology of words, 153-155.
- Evening lectures of Teachers' Institute, 256.
- Excellence, False standard of, 13, 14.
- Expression, Facial, 193, 194.
- Eyesight, affected by school lighting, 74, 75.
- Fables, 177.
- Facial expression, 193, 194.
- Fairchild, George T., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 287.
- Fairy stories, 177.
- Federalist*, The, Composition on, 261.
- Fénelon's *Télémaque*, 299 note.
- Fiction, Names of, 156, 157.
- Flag Days, presentation exercises, literature, etc., 228-235.
- Flower presses, 142.
- Flues for ventilating, 116.
- Folk-lore in etymology, 153, 154, 156.
- Food, proper, 120.
- Forced ventilation, 108, 109.
- Foreign phrases, 155, 156.
- Forms of address, 196, 197.
- Franklin, Benjamin, Birthday of, 228; Writings of, 261, 262.
- Frankness in school matters, 46, 47.
- Fresh air, Lowest necessary quantity of, 106.
- Furnace, Position of, 103, 112.
- Gail Hamilton, on choice of books, 176; *Skirmishes and Sketches*, 163.

- Gannon, John, on Teachers' Reading Circles, 288.
- Garfield, James A., Birthday of, 228.
- Gastman, E. A., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 287.
- Gazetteer, in dictionary, 157.
- Geographical names, 157.
- Geography, Suggestions for instruction in, 249.
- George Eliot, Characters of, 176.
- Gilpatrick, S. C., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 288.
- Gow, *Morals and Manners*, 202; on facial expression, politeness, etc., 193, 194, 197, 198.
- "Gradgrind system" of education, 177.
- Grading in Teachers' Institutes, 253.
- Grant, Ulysses S., Birthday of, 228; Teachers of, 300.
- Great Stone Face*, Hawthorne's, 40.
- Hadley, Hiram, on Teachers' Reading Circles, 285.
- Halls in city schools, 102.
- Hamilton, A., Birthday of, 228.
- Hamilton, Gail, 163, 176.
- Hammond, J. H., on truth, 303.
- Harris, Dr., on moral training, 184; on respect for law, 186, 187.
- Hawthorne, N., Birthday of, 213; Knowledge of, 33; Works of, 263.
- Health, Teacher's responsibility for pupil's, 120.
- Heating of schools, 105-117.
- Hemans, Felicia, Extract from, 137.
- Henry, Patrick, noted orator, 261.
- Historians, American, 263.
- History of America*, Bancroft's, 263.
- History of the English language, 159.
- History of Virginia*, Smith's, 260.
- Hobbs, B. C., on education, 301.
- Holidays, General, 207, 235, 236.
- Holmes, Oliver W., Birthday of, 213; poem on dress, 201, Study of, 262.
- Hot-water heating, 115, 116.
- Hough, F. B., Extract from, 135.
- House of Seven Gables*, Hawthorne's, 263.
- Humboldt, A. von, Extract from, 136.
- Hybrid words, 154, 155.
- Hygiene, School, see School Hygiene, 105-120.
- Ideal Institute course, 253.
- Ideal teacher, 299, 300.
- Ideals of teacher, 45.
- Iliad*, Character of *Stentor* in, 153.
- Illinois Pupils' Reading Circle, 290; representative courses, 293.
- Illustrations in dictionary, 159.
- Inadequate compensation of teachers, 28-34; objections to pensioning, 29; Evils resulting from, 29, 30; Alleged reasons for, 29, 30; teacher's necessities, 31-34.
- Independence Day, 207.
- Indiana State Teachers' Reading Circle, 270; Success of, 276.
- Indirect steam heating, 115, 116.
- Inherent rights of teacher, 60.
- Innovations, Objections to, 50.
- Instrumental Knowledge, Teacher's, 242-244.
- International Dictionary, 153.
- Introduction, 5-8.
- Introduction to the Study of Society*, Extracts from, 303, 304.
- Iowa Pupils' Reading Circle, 290; representative courses, 293, 294.
- Irving, W., Birthday of, 212; Extract from, 136; Work of, 263.
- Jackson, Andrew, Birthday of, 228; Teachers of, 300.
- Janitor, Selection of, 118.
- Jefferson, Thomas, Birthday of, 228; Teachers of, 300.
- John of Barneveld*, Motley's, 263.
- Jonson, Ben, Extract from, 135.
- Kansas, First celebration of Arbor Day in, 123; Pupils' Reading Circle, 291.
- Key, Francis S., *Star Spangled Banner* by, 232, 233.
- Kyrle, John, *The Man of Ross*, 312, 313.
- Language, History of English, 159; Importance of using correct, 194.
- Larcom, Lucy, Extracts from, 37, 133, 139, 140.
- Lavatories in schools, 87, 88.
- Lecture and class instruction, Relative advantages of, 251, 252.
- Letters, Elimination of silent, 151 note.
- Letter-writing, 199.
- Lexicographers, German, 151, 152; American, 150, 151, 264.
- Libraries, School, 163-180; and book-cases, 177-180.
- Library catalogues, 178, 179; Day, 235.
- Lighting in schools, 74-82; by opposite windows, 77; North and south, 77, 78; East and west, 78, 79; shutters, shades, etc., 80; south entrances, 81, 82.

- Limitations of school-board's authority, 60; of Teachers' Institute, 246.
- Lincoln, Abraham, Extracts from speeches of, 218-224; Suggestions for birthday of, 214-227; Teachers of, 300; Tom Taylor's tribute to, 225-227.
- Lincoln leaflets, 214-224.
- Lines of study for teachers, 245, 246.
- Literary exercises for Arbor Day, 129, 130.
- Literature, Adams, C. F., on, 167; American pedagogical, 275; appeal for reform, 167; Good, 169, 170; in Schools, *Report of Committee of Ten*, 172-174; insufficient instruction in reading, 168; Juvenile, 163-180; Street, 164, 165; Sumner, W. G., on, 165-167; relating to American flag, 232-234; Sunday school, 163, 164; Topical exercise on, 260-264; Unwholesome, 163-168.
- Local meetings for Reading Circles, 280, 281
- Locke Amsden*, Extract from, 105.
- Longfellow, Henry W., Extracts from, 130, 131, 136, 209-212; Study of, 262; Suggestions for birthday of, 209-212; Understanding of, 33.
- Lowell, James R., Birthday of, 212; Extract from, 132; Study of, 262.
- Lytton, Lord, Extract from, 131.
- Macaulay, on practical results, 305.
- Madison, James, Birthday of, 228.
- Madison Papers*, Composition on, 261.
- Mann, Horace, on power of school-officers, 61 note; pioneer of education, 6; publishes Mr. Page's address, 6, 7.
- Manuals of institute work, 248, 258.
- Marble, Superintendent, on power of school-officers, 60 note; on relation between teachers and school-officers, 56-59.
- Marble Faun*, Hawthorne's, 263.
- Massachusetts, law of 1826, 56; law relating to teachers, 58, 59.
- Massey, Gerald, Extract from, 135.
- McRae, Emma M., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 283, 284.
- Mechanical virtues, 184, 185.
- Medals, Dangers of, 187, 188.
- Mediæval schools, 58.
- Melville, Lord, Speech of, 155.
- Mentor*, Fénelon's character of, 299 and note.
- Metcalf, Prof. Robert C., on public school reading, 169.
- Method, Importance of good, 241; relation to school government, 249, 250; teacher's instrumental knowledge, 243.
- Michigan Pupils' Reading Circle, 291; representative courses, 292.
- Microscopic investigation, Plants for, 145.
- Miller, Dan, on Pupils' Reading Circles, 290.
- Miller, Joaquin, Extract from, 133.
- Milton, John, Extract from, 134; Familiarity with, 33; on education, 301.
- Misunderstanding between teachers and parents, 13-16.
- Misuse of words, 148, 149.
- Moffatt, Rebecca D., on Teachers' Reading Circle, 277.
- Monroe, James, Birthday of, 228.
- Moral culture, Massachusetts law in regard to, 58, 59.
- Moral training in schools, 181-183.
- Morality defined, 183.
- Morals and Manners*, Gow's, 202.
- Morals, School, see School Morals, 181-188.
- Motley, John L., Birthday of, 212; Works of, 263.
- Motto of United States, 231.
- Mulloch, Miss, Characters of, 176.
- Music relating to American flag, 232-234.
- Mutual Duties of Parents and Teachers*, Page's, 6.
- Names, Biographical, 157; Geographical, 157; of fiction, 156, 157.
- Nation, The teacher and the, 315, 316.
- National Bureau of Education, 8.
- National Educational Association, 5, 66.
- National songs and poems, 233.
- Neatness, in the school, 38, 117, 118; Personal, 201.
- Nebraska, Arbor Day originated in, 123; Pupils' Reading Circle, 291.
- Needs of community, Consideration of, 63-65.
- New Profession, The*, by H. W. Beecher, 267.
- Normal school, Difference between institute and, 239, 240; Function of, 239.
- Normal temperature of room, 111.
- Norman conquest, its effect on English language, 148.
- Norman French, Words derived from, 154.

- Northrop, B. G., on landscape gardening, 124.
- Notes on Teachers' Reading Circles, 283-288.
- Official dictation, Dangers of, 62, 63.
- Oklahoma Pupils' Reading Circle, 291, 292.
- Opening exercises, 181, 182.
- Origin of Arbor Day, 123-125; of Pupils' Reading Circles, 289; of Teachers' Reading Circles, 277.
- Oswald, Felix L., Extract from, 133.
- Otis, James, noted orator, 261.
- Ounce*, abbreviation of, 158.
- Outlines of Reading Circle Work, 319-324.
- Page, David Perkins, pioneer in education, 6, 11; on duties of parents, 11-42; on duties of teachers, 45-54; on Teachers' Associations, 269.
- Parents, Advantages of coöperation of, 27, 28; Authority of, 57, 58; Critical dictation of, 14, 15; Duties of, 11-42; Misunderstanding between teachers and, 13-16; Obligations towards teachers, 26, 27; Suspicious spirit of, 14; Sympathy with teachers, 11-13, 25, 26.
- Parker, Col. Francis W., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 287; on teaching, 268.
- Payne, William H., *Contributions to Science of Education*, 239-264; on Teachers' Institutes, 256; on Teachers' Reading Circles, 284, 285.
- Peaslee, John B., founder of Authors' Grove, 124.
- Pension system, Objections to, 29.
- Personal influence, 304, 305.
- Pilot*, *The*, Cooper's, 263.
- Plant collections in schools, 140-146.
- Plant photography, 143.
- Planting trees, Suggestions for, 126-129.
- Plants for microscopic investigation, 145.
- Platform, Teacher's, 95-97.
- Plato, ancient teacher, 58.
- Playgrounds, 100, 101.
- Politeness, not a matter of forms, 193; expressed by speech, 194, 195.
- Political phase in American literature, 261.
- Poor Richard's Almanac*, 261.
- Pope, Alexander, Extract from, 131.
- Porter, N., on juvenile literature, 167.
- Practical Hygiene*, Currier's, 106.
- Practical results, Importance of, 305-307.
- Prescott, William H., Birthday of, 212; Works of, 263.
- Presentation of portraits, 208, 209.
- Primary teachers, 30.
- Primers, List of, 175, 176.
- Principal, Office of, 103; Selection of teachers by, 64; Selection of textbooks by, 64, 65.
- Privies, School, 88-92.
- Prizes, Dangers of, 187, 188.
- Professional culture for teachers, 271, 272.
- Professional knowledge, Teacher's, 242-244.
- Professional training, 29-32.
- Professor, abuse of title, 196, 197.
- Pronunciation of words, 158, 159.
- Psalm of Life*, Longfellow's, 39.
- Psychology applied to teaching, 243, 250, 251.
- Public money for school libraries, 41.
- Public opinion, relating to school, 307, 308; Teacher's relation to, 299-316.
- Punctuality, Importance of, 22; in school, 184; result of moral training, 184, 185.
- Pupils' Reading Circles, 289-295; Boone, R. G., on, 289; Illinois, 290; Indiana, 170, 289; Iowa, 290; Kansas, 291; Membership of, 289; Michigan, 291; Nebraska, 291; Oklahoma, 291; Organization of, 40, 41; Origin of, 289; Representative courses in, 292-295; South Dakota, 291; Teacher's encouragement of, 51.
- Quibbling, Dangers of, 247, 248.
- Rank of teacher, 268.
- Reading, influence on child's mind, 40, 41; Supervision of child's, 39-42. See also Literature.
- Reading Circles, Allen (Dr. Jerome) on, 271, 272; discussion of work, 271; established in various states, 270, 271; in educational advancement, 269; Indiana State Teachers', 269, 270; local meetings, 280, 281; Maintenance of, 275; notes on Teachers', 283-288; officially recognized, 278; outlines of work, 319-324; permanent institutions, 276, 277; present trend of work, 281-283; Pupils', 40, 41, 51, 170,

- 289-295; representative courses, 292-295; school-officer's influence, 278; Skinner (H. M.) on organization, 274, 275; Teachers', 33, 49, 267-288; Teachers' attitude towards, 278, 279; True origin of, 277; value of work, 279, 280; work exhibited, 271.
- Recitation rooms, Arrangement of, 98, 99.
- Reform, Appeal for, 167.
- Registers, Position of, 111-114.
- Religious training, distinguished from moral, 182.
- Repair, Necessity for constant, 104.
- Report of Committee of Ten*, 172-174.
- Rise of the Dutch Republic*, Motley's, 263.
- Robinson Crusoe*, in connection with geography, 169.
- Roderick Hume*, Extract from, 105.
- Rule for final consonants, 151.
- Ruskin, John, Extract from, 133; Understanding of, 33.
- Salary, Teachers', 34, 66, 67.
- Sashes, arrangements for ventilation, 107, 108; Shape and size of, 79.
- Scholarship, Teachers', 240, 241.
- School Architecture, 70, 73-104; site and surroundings, 73, 74; lighting, 74-82; arrangement of school-house, 82-100; need of a competent critic, 83, 84; main schoolroom, 84, 85; arrangement of entrances, 85, 86; rooms in small and large buildings, 86; vestibules, 86, 87; wardrobes, washing conveniences, etc., 87, 88; arrangement of closets, 88-92; moral dangers of improper arrangement, 88, 89; best position, 89; importance of cleanliness, privacy, etc., 90; relative advantages of water and earth closets and privies, 90, 91; details of arrangement, urinals, screens, etc., 91, 92; position of woodshed, 92, 93; position of stove, etc., 93, 94, 98; additional rooms, 94; seating capacity, 94; arrangement of desks and platforms, 95-97; height of ceiling, window sills, etc., 97; arrangement of blackboards, 98; size and arrangement of recitation rooms, etc., 98, 99; necessity of teacher's room, 98; details of general planning, 99, 100; height of stairs, 100; arrangement in city schools, 100-104; school grounds, 100, 101; halls, wardrobes, and teachers' rooms, 102; toilet arrangements, 102; principal's office, 103; position of furnace, 103; details of arrangement, 103, 104; evils in old schoolhouses, 104; necessity of constant repair, 104.
- School boards, Educational affairs administered by, 7, 8; Limit of authority of, 60, 61; Members of, 52, 53, 54; relation to authority of teachers, 59-63.
- School celebrations and observances, 36-42, 207-236; American flag and shield, 230-232; Arbor, Commencement, and Library Days, 235; authors' birthdays, 208, 209; Encouragement of, 36, 37; Flag Presentation Day, 229; general holidays, 207, 235, 236; Good effects of, 38, 39; Lincoln's birthday, 214-227; lists of notable birthdays, 212, 213, 228; music and literature relating to flag, 232-234; school flags and Flag Days, 228, 229, 234, 235; suggestions for Longfellow's birthday, 209-212; Washington's birthday, 213, 214.
- School committees, Subdivision of, 65.
- School etiquette, 191-206; meaning of the word, 191; Importance of, 191, 192; influence of example, 192; not a mere system of forms, 193; facial expression, 193, 194; manner of speaking, 194, 195; forms of address, 196, 197; deportment in school, on the street, and at meals, 197-201; care for articles of value, 198, 199; correspondence, 199; care of the person, 201, 202; Gow's *Morals and Manners*, 202; Washington's *Rules of Civility*, 202-206.
- School flags and Flag Days, 228, 229.
- School hygiene, 105-120; ventilation and heating, 105-117; lowest standard amount of fresh air, 106; atmospheric poisons, 106, 107; frequent ventilation, 107; sash arrangements for ventilation, 107, 108; dangers of "forced ventilation," 108, 109; provisions for escape of foul air, 110; avoiding friction, 110; difficulties in crowded schoolrooms, 111; electric fans, 111; normal temperature of room, 111; position of furnace and registers, 111-114; checks to force of wind, 113, 114; steam heating, 114, 115; hot-water heating, 115, 116; relative advantages of vari-

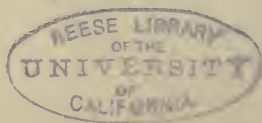
- ous heating methods, 116, 117; exhaust flues for ventilating, 116; cleanliness, 117, 118; selection of janitor, 118; care of eyes—good type, 119; right position at desk, 119; food and water, 120; teacher's responsibility for pupil's health, 120.
- School laws of the state, 58.
- School libraries, 41, 42, 163-180; Books suitable for, 42; catalogues, 178, 179; choice of books, 174-177; Circulars of Information, 171; influence of good literature, 168-170; Need for, 170-172; Influence of teacher in procuring, 180; influence of unwholesome literature, 163-168; libraries and bookcases, 177-180; Means of procuring, 170, 171; Public money for, 41; *Report of Committee of Ten*, 172; schools for training librarians, 180.
- School life, Importance of culture in, 192.
- School management and organization, 249, 250.
- School Management*, by Dr. E. E. White, 59.
- School Morals, 181-188; moral training in schools, 181-183; difference between moral and religious training, 181; opening exercises, 182; constant training in schoolroom, 182, 183; influence of beautiful stories, etc., 182; what morality is, 183; teacher's responsibility, 183; discipline of school, 183-185; punctuality, etc., 184, 185; parents' assistance, 185; social duties of school children, 185, 186; teacher's respect for law, 186-188; corporal punishment abolished, 187; self-culture the aim of education, 187; danger of prizes and medals, 188; teacher's influence on school morals, 188.
- School officers, assumption of teachers' rights, 62, 63; Authority of, 61; Difficulties of, 65; Dignity necessary to, 69; Duties of, 55-70; duty of coöperation, 64; Horace Mann, on power of, 61 note; influence on Reading Circles, 278; mistakes in judgment, 67-69; Necessary qualifications of, 67, 68; no legal right to play teacher, 62; not teachers, 60; Personal responsibility of, 65, 66; Powers and duties of, 57; powers given by law, 60; propriety of official advice, 63; Relations of teachers to, 51-54; scholarship not necessary, 67, 68; Supt. Marble on power of, 60 note.
- School regulations, Character of, 61.
- Schoolhouse, Arrangement of, 82-100.
- Schoolmaster in Literature, The*, 275.
- Schools, Absence of mystery about, 46, 47; Ancient, 56; Appointments necessary to, 70; Chartered, 58; Classification in, 14, 20, 21; Discipline of, 183-185; Environment of, 34-36; False standard of excellence for, 13, 14; for training librarians, 180; Importance of, 13; Mediæval, 58; Moral training in, 181-183; Neatness in, 38; Sanitary conditions of, 35, 36.
- Scott, Sir Walter, Extract from, 135; novels in connection with history, 169.
- Scripture proper names, 155.
- Selections for Arbor Day exercises, 130-140.
- Self-culture, the aim of education, 187.
- Shades, Advantages and disadvantages of, 79, 80.
- Shakspeare, William, Extract from, 133; Familiarity with, 33; Words used by, 148 note.
- Shenstone, Wm., Extract from, 300.
- Sills, Height of, 80, 81, 97.
- Site of school, 73, 74.
- Skeleton leaves, 143, 144.
- Sketch Book*, Irving's, 263.
- Skinner, Hubert M., on Reading Circle work, 272, 273; on state organization, 274, 275.
- Skirmishes and Sketches*, Gail Hamilton's, 163, 164.
- Slang, Use of, 166.
- Small and Vincent's *Introduction to the Study of Society*, Extract from, 303, 304.
- Smart, Dr. James H., *Books and Reading for the Young*, 169, 170.
- Smith, John, *History of Virginia*, 260.
- Social culture, Importance of, 191.
- Social duties of school children, 185.
- Social powers, Teachers as, 303-305.
- Socrates, ancient teacher, 58.
- South Dakota Pupils' Reading Circle, 291; representative courses, 294, 295.
- Speaking, Manner of, 194, 195.
- Special functions of teacher, 61, 62.
- Speer, H. C., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 288.

Spelling, Webster's Rules for, 151.
Spy, The, Cooper's, 263.
 Stairs in school building, 100.
 Star Spangled Banner, 232, 233.
 "Starvation" Dundas, 155.
 State Association Meetings, 66.
 State Reading Circles, First, 269-271.
 State Superintendent, Influence on Teachers' Institute, 258.
 Statesmen, Birthdays of noted, 228; Five great, 262.
 Steam heating, 114, 115.
Stellar Worlds in connection with reading, 169.
 Stoddard, Richard Henry, Extract from, 132.
Story of the Nations, Value of, 175.
 Stove, Position of, 93, 94, 98.
 Stowe, H. B., Birthday of, 212; Characters of, 176; Work of, 264.
 Street literature, Evil effects of, 164.
 Substitutions in abbreviations, 158.
 Suggestions, for Flag Presentation Day, 229-235; for plant collections in schools, 140-146.
 Sumner, Charles, Birthday of, 228; Character of, 262.
 Sumner, Prof. William G., on juvenile literature, 165-167.
 Superintendent, Influence of County and State, 258, 259.
 Supervision, when beneficial, 63.
 Supplies, Necessity of, 69, 70.
Swiss Family Robinson, in connection with Geography, 169.
 Syllabication, 152, 153.
 Syllogisms, 306 note.
 Sympathy between teachers and parents, 11-13, 25, 26.
 Synonyms in English, 148; Books of, 160.

Tact of teacher, 48-50.
Tales of a Traveler, Irving's, 263.
 Taylor, Bayard, Birthday of, 212.
 Teacher, appointment by principal, 64; as business man, 308, 309; as patriot, 309, 310; as philanthropist, 310-313; as specialist, 30, 31; attitude towards Reading Circles, 278, 279; Authority of, 59-63; Bad influence of tyrannical, 186, 187; Difficulties of, 11, 23-25; Duties of, 16, 45-54; see Duties of teacher; Ideal, 299; in mediæval schools, 58; in place of parent, 57, 58; in relation to state, 300, 301; in society, 313-315; Inadequate compensation of, 28-34; Influence of cultured, 192; influ-

ence on national development, 315, 316; Instrumental and professional knowledge of, 243; knowledge of educational values, 244; Lines of study for, 245, 246; member of Institute, 259; *Mentor* most significant term for, 299; necessity of tact, 48-50, 307, 308; need of contact with other teachers, 32; need of good supplies, 70; need of libraries, 32, 33, 34; Nervous strain on, 31; Obligation of parent towards, 26, 27; of ancient times, 56; Personal influence of, 301-303; Powers and duties of, 56-59; Primary, 30; Professional, 16; Rank of, 268; relations to school-officers, 51-54; Requirements of, 29, 31, 32, 33; Requisites for good, 240, 242; respect for law, 186-188; responsibility in school morals, 183, 188; Rooms for, 98, 102; Salary of, 66, 67; Shortcomings of, 15, 16; Specific duties of, 58, 59; Underestimating services of, 26, 27.
 Teachers' Institute, 239-264; distinction between it and normal school, 239, 240; defined, 240; knowledge, method, and true spirit, 240-242; instrumental and professional knowledge, 242-244; psychology and teaching, 243, 244; educational values, 244; limitations of teachers' institute, 246, 247; reviews, profitable and unprofitable, 247, 248; danger of quibbling, 247, 248; advantages of professional instruction, 249; suggestions for instruction in geography, 249; school management, 249, 250; psychology applied to teaching, 250, 251; class and lecture instruction, 251, 252; typical work, 252; ideal two weeks' course, 253; difficulties to be met, grading, indifference, etc., 253-255; aims of the institute, 255, 256; evening lectures, 256; academic instruction, 257; Development of the institute, 257, 258; influence of state and county superintendents, 258, 259; manuals, 258; members, 259; special topics of instruction, 260; topical exercise on American literature, 260-264; how affected by Reading Circles, 274.
 Teachers' Reading Circles, 33, 49, 259, 267-288; a permanent institution, 276, 277; Allen (Dr. J.) on, 271, 272; apathy of teachers, 276; discussion of work, 271-273; first

- State Reading Circles, 269-271; helped to develop American pedagogical literature, 275; local meetings, 280, 281; Maintenance of, 275; Notes on Teachers' Reading Circles, 283-288; Origin of, 277; Parker, Col., on, 268; past decade in education, 269; period of probation, 275, 276; present trend of work, 282, 283; School officers' and teachers' attitude towards, 278, 279; Skinner, (H. M.) on, 273; State organization, 274, 275; trade and profession of teaching, 267, 268; value of work, 279, 280.
- Teacher's relation to public opinion, 299-316; ideal teacher, 299, 300; teacher and state, 300, 301; personal influence, 301-303; guiding center in society, 303, 304; interaction of personal influence, 304, 305; practical results, 305-307; public opinion relating to school, 307, 308; teacher as man of business, patriot, etc., 308-316.
- Teaching, profession and trade, 267.
- Temperature of room, Normal, 111.
- Tennyson, Familiarity with, 33.
- Terminations, derived from Anglo-Saxon and Norman French, 154.
- Text-books, 64, 65.
- Thackeray, Characters of, 176.
- Thanksgiving Day, 207.
- Theological phase in American Literature, 261.
- Thompson, D'Arcy, on the teacher in society, 314.
- Titles, Indiscriminate use of, 196.
- Toilet, arrangements for, 102.
- Tom Taylor's *Tribute to Lincoln*, 225-227.
- Trollope, Characters of, 176.
- Typical knowledge, 247, 248.
- U, Elimination of letter, 151.
- Uncle Tom's Cabin*, Mrs. Stowe's, 264.
- Value of Reading Circle work, 279.
- Ventilation of schools, see School Hygiene, 105-117.
- Vestibules, Position of, 86, 87.
- Videlicet*, Abbreviation of, 158.
- Virtues, Mechanical, 184, 185.
- Walker, Francis A., on juvenile literature, 167.
- Wardrobes, Arrangement of, 98, 99; in city schools, 102; in country schools, 87, 88.
- Washington, George, Birthday of, 228; Programme for birthday of, 214; Suggestions for birthday of, 213; Teachers of, 300.
- Washington's *Rules of Civility*, 202-206.
- Waste pipes in school buildings, 87.
- Water, in relation to school hygiene, 120.
- Waverley*, Characters of, 176.
- Wayland, Francis, on juvenile literature, 167.
- Webster, D., Birthday of, 228; characteristics of, 262; Extracts from speeches of, 233, 234, 300, 301.
- Webster, Noah, Work of, 264.
- Webster's Dictionary, as standard, 150-152; International, 155, 159.
- Pictorial, 160; Unabridged, 155.
- White, Dr. Emerson E., on fairy tales and fables, 177; on teacher's authority, 59-63.
- Whittier, John G., Birthday of, 213; Extracts from, 27, 132; Study of, 262.
- Williams, Delia L., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 286.
- Willis, N. P., Extract from, 134.
- Winans, George W., on Teachers' Reading Circles, 287, 288.
- Window openings in schoolrooms, 75, 76, 77.
- Window sills, Height of, 80, 81, 97.
- Wood, Alphonso, on plants, 145, 146.
- Woodshed, Position of, 92, 93.
- Woolsey, Theodore D., on juvenile literature, 167.
- Worcester's Dictionary, 264.
- Words, Abbreviations and contractions of, 157, 158; derived from Anglo-Saxon and Norman French, 153, 154; Ethics of, 147-149; Hybrid, 154, 155; Misuse of, 149; Order of meanings of, 151, 152; Origin and history of, 153-155; Pronunciation of, 158, 159.
- Wordsworth, William, Extracts from, 39, 53, 131.
- Wright, E., Extract from, 134, 135.
- Ye, used for *the*, 158.
- Youl, Extract from, 138.
- Young, J. B., on Pupils' Reading Circles, 290.



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